DUE DATE

GAZETTEER OF INDIA

MYSORE ST 'E

GULBARGA DISTRICT

MYSORE STATE GAZETTEER

GULBARGA DISTRICT

BY

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PREFACE

THE first edition of the Imperial Gazetteer of India was published in nine volumes in 1881. A second edition containing fourteen volumes was issued in the years 1885-87. This was rewritten in 1901 by persons who had acquired experience as Census Superintendents in their respective Provinces or States and a new edition was published in 1907. Information about the districts in India including the Princely States was available in this publication.

The Princely State of Hyderabad, of which Gulbarga formed a district, was publishing gazetteers for each district since 1921 known as the Hyderabad District Gazetteers. But these contained only statistical details of various departments without any description of the districts or their history.

The Ministry of Education, Government of India, drew up an all-India scheme and requested the State Governments to take up the compilation of District Gazetteers as a Centrally Sponsored Scheme. The Government of Mysore sanctioned a scheme for the compilation of a gazetteer for each of the districts of the State. An Advisory Board consisting of the Chief Secretary to the Government of Mysore as the Chairman and Dr. D. C. Pavate, M.A. (Cantab), Sri V. L. D'Souza, B.A., B.com. (Lond.), Sri P. H. Krishna Rao, M.A., Prof. K. A. Nilakanta Sastri, M.A., and Dr. S. C. Nandimath, M.A., Ph.D. (Lond.) as Members was also constituted to scrutinise the chapters compiled by me and to guide me in the work.

The Gazetteer of Gulbarga district is the third to be published in the series of District Gazetteers of Mysore State, the first two being those of Coorg and Bijapur districts. The chapter headings and contents are in accordance with the pattern laid down by the Government of India. The available Census data of 1961 have been given and in other cases the figures of the 1951 Census had to be depended upon. Every attempt has been made to include the latest figures as far as possible.

I have received valuable co-operation and assistance from various sources and I take this opportunity of expressing my sincere thanks to the Chairman and Members of the Advisory Board, Sri Bheemasen Rao Tavag of Gulbarga, the Indian Meteorological Department, the Survey of India, the Director of Printing, Stationery and Publications, and the departments of the State Government. I have also received valuable assistance from the members of my staff consisting of Sri A. Ramakrishnan, Administrative Officer, Sriyuths P. B. Srinivasan, K. Puttaswamaiah, J. G. Alavandar Naidu and M. A. Narasimha Iyengar, Editors, and K. L. Anantha Raman and G. V. Subba Ramu, Stenographers. Sriyuths K. Abhishankar and K. C. Bheemaiah, who later joined the staff as Editors, have rendered assistance at the stage of revision and printing of the gazetteer. To all of them, my gratitude is due.

I will be failing in my duty, if I do not express my thanks to Dr. P. N. Chopra, M.A., Ph.D., Editor, District Gazetteers, and the staff of the Central Gazetteers Unit, Ministry of Education, New Delhi, for their effective role in planning and co-ordinating the work of preparation of the District Gazetteers. The Unit scrutinised the draft of this volume with great care and made several helpful suggestions with a view to improving the standard and quality of the publication. It may also be mentioned here that a portion of the expenditure incurred on the compilation and printing of the District Gazetteers is being met by the Government of India.

BANGALORE,
Dated 26th August 1966.

B. N. SRI SATHYAN,
Chief Editor.

CONTENTS

	Pages
PREFACE	v—vi
CHAPTER I—GENERAL	1—34
Origin of name—Location—General Boundaries—Area and Population—Administrative History—Sub-Divisions, Taluks and Revenue Circles—Natural Divisions—Hills—Rivers—Geology—Soil—Mineral Wealth—Flora—Fauna—Climate—Rainfall.	
CHAPTRE II—HISTORY . . .	35—62
Pre-history—Legendary History—Chalukyas of Badami—Rashtrakutas—Chalukyas of Kalyana—Kalachuryas—Bahmani Dynasty—Mughals—Bedar Rajas of Surapura—Asaf Jahi Dynasty—Police Action—Freedom Struggle—Unification of Kannada Areas—Mutual Cultural Influence—Architecture.	
CHAPTER III—PEOPLE	63—90
Population—Households—Languages—Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes—Religions—Castes—Property and Inheritance—Marriage and Morals—Social Life—Dwelling Houses—Dress and Ornaments—Food Habits—Festivals—Entertainments—Funerals.	
CHAPTER IV—AGRICULTURE AND IRRIGATION	91—137
Geology and Soils—Land Utilisation—Irrigation—Forestry—Principal Food Crops—Modes of Cultivation—Non-Food Crops—Oil Seeds—Horticulture—Agricultural Implements—Improved Seeds—Manures and Fertilisers—Pests and Diseases—Agricultural Research and Experimentation—Animal Husbandry—Veterinary Facilities—Fisheries—Famines and Floods.	
CHAPTER V—INDUSTRIES	138—164
Industries in early days—Power Supply—Cement Industry—Textile Industry—Oil Mills—Other Small-scale Industries—Industrial Co-operatives—Artisan Training Institutes—Industrial Estates—Development Areas—Industrial Potentialities—Welfare of Industrial Labour.	
CHAPTER VI—BANKING, TRADE AND COMMERCE . .	165—205
Indigenous Banking—Rural Indebtedness—Money-Lenders—Loans and Advances—Joint-Stock Banking Offices—Co-operative Banks and Societies—Co-operative Planning—Life Insurance—Financial Assistance to Agriculture and Industry—Currency and Coinage—Trade and Commerce—Regulated Markets—Warehouses—Trade Centres—Weights and Measures.	
CHAPTER VII—COMMUNICATIONS . . .	206—231
Old-time Routes—Categories of Roads—Bridges—Vehicles and Conveyances—Ferries—Modern Road Transport—Railways—Travel Facilities—Rest Houses and Dak Bungalows—Posts and Telegraphs—Telephone Exchanges.	

CHAPTER VIII—MISCELLANEOUS OCCUPATIONS . . . . 232—239

Livelihood Pattern—Workers and Non-workers—Occupational Classification—Public Administration Service—Learned Professions—Other Occupations.

CHAPTER IX—ECONOMIC TRENDS . . . . . . 240—277

Price Movements—Price Control—Wage Level—Natural and Human Resources—Land Utilisation—Urbanisation—Occupational Pattern—Trade Pattern—Mineral Resources—Power and Communications—Standard of Living—Employment Avenues—Community Development.

CHAPTER X—GENERAL ADMINISTRATION . . . . . 278—283

Administrative Divisions—Divisional Commissioner—Deputy Commissioner—Police Officers—Judicial Officers—Divisional and District Level Officers.

CHAPTER XI—REVENUE ADMINISTRATION . . . . 284—315

Histroy of Assessment—Zilla Bandi System—Land Tenures—Original Settlement—Revision Settlement—Revenue Collections—Survey System—Recent Settlements—Record of Rights—Land Reforms—Tenancy Regulations—Revenue set-up at District Level—Bhoodan—Other Taxes—Central Excises.

CHAPTER XII—LAW, ORDER AND JUSTICE . . . 316—333

Early History—Law and Order Situation—Incidence and Detection of Crime—Set-up of Police Administration—Auxiliary Organisations Amenities to Policemen—Central Prison—Prison Administration—Welfare of Prisoners—Judicial Set-up—Civil Justice—Criminal Justice.

CHAPTER XIII—OTHER DEPARTMENTS . . . . . . 334—350

Forests—Public Works—Agriculture—Animal Husbandry—Statistics—Social Welfare—Labour—Archaeology—Civil Supplies—Food Supplies—Horticulture—Mines and Geology—Registration—Commercial Taxes—Industries and Commerce—Publicity and Information—Transport—Land Records and Settlement.

CHAPTER XIV—LOCAL SELF-GOVERNMENT . . . . . 351—370

Early Legislations—Later Measures—Gulbarga City Municipality—Shahabad Town Municipality—Aland Town Municipality—Shahapur Town Municipality—Shorapur Town Municipality—Yadgir Town Municipality—Gurmatkal Town Municipality—Chincholi Town Municipality—Seram Town Municipality—Chittapur Town Municipality—Panchayatraj.

CHAPTER XV—EDUCATION AND CULTURE . . . . . 371—399

Historical Background—Literacy—Educational Levels—Educational Administration—Primary Education—Basic Education—Secondary Education—Teachers' Training Institutions—Commercial Education—Higher Education—Professional and Technical Education—Fine Arts Education—Education of the Handicapped—Social Education—Cultural and Literary Societies—Cultural Heritage.

CHAPTER XVI—MEDICAL AND PUBLIC HEALTH SERVICES . 400—421

Medical Facilities in early times—Vital Statistics—Epidemics—Malaria Eradication Programme—Public Health Organisation—Medical Organisation—Hospitals, Dispensaries and Health Units—Medical Practitioners—Medical Institutions.

CHAPTER XVII—OTHER SOCIAL SERVICES . . . . . . 422—437

Labour Laws and Administration—Industrial Disputes—Factories and Other Establishments—Trade Unions—Employees' Provident Fund Scheme—Prohibition—Advancement of Backward Classes and Tribes—Women's Welfare—Charitable Endowments.

CHAPTER XVIII—PUBLIC LIFE AND VOLUNTARY SOCIAL SERVICE ORGANISATIONS . . . . . . 438—458

Representation in State and Union Legislatures—Changes in Election Procedure—Political Parties—General Elections—Newspapers and Periodicals—Voluntary Social Service Organisations.

CHAPTER XIX—PLACES OF INTEREST . . . . . 459—472

(Names of places are given in alphabetical order)

APPENDIX . . . . 473—484

Tables 1 and 2 : Area and Population by Taluks and Towns—Table 3 : Occupational Classification of Persons—Table 4 : Livestock Population—Metric Weights and Measures and their equivalents—Monetary Conversion Table . . . .

SELECT BIBLIOGRAPHY . . . . 485—486

ILLUSTRATIONS . . . . 487—498

1. Jami Mosque in the Fort at Gulbarga.
2. A series of Mausoleums of Bahmani Sultans at Gulbarga.
3. Khwaja Bando Nawaz Dargah, Gulbarga.
4. A notable Bahmani Tomb at Gulbarga.
5. Aiwan-e-Shahi Guest House, Gulbarga.
6. Shri Sharanabasaveshwara Temple, Gulbarga.

INDEX . . . . 499—511

ERRATA 512

MAP OF GULBARGA DISTRICT

GULBARGA DISTRICT

CHAPTER I

GENERAL

GULBARGA is not only the headquarters of the district but also of the division, comprising the four districts of Bidar, Gulbarga, Raichur and Bellary and both the district and the division are called by its name. In former days, Gulbarga was known as Kalburgi which means a 'stony land' or 'stone roofing' or a 'heap of stones' in Kannada. In 1445, Abdur Razzak describing the extent of the Vijayanagar Empire, stated that it extended up to the extremities of the country of *Kalburgah.* Another version is that Gulbarga was so named to connote a leaf with flower, since 'Gul' means 'flower' and 'Burg' means 'leaf' in the Persian language. It is also said that Kalburgi, known later as Kalburgah, came to be pronounced as Gulbarga when it was under the Muslim rule. The fort at Gulbarga was originally built by Raja Gulchand and afterwards strengthened by Ala-ud-din Bahmani, but it is not certain if the name of the Raja had anything to do with the name of the town which grew around it. Nothing definite is known about the origin of the name, but this much is certain that it was known as Kalburgi in earlier days and was later on changed to Gulbarga. Even now, it is not uncommon to hear people calling the place as Kalburgi. **Origin of name**

Gulbarga district is situated in the northern part of Mysore State. Among the three districts of the former Hyderabad Karnatak area which, after the reorganisation of States, formed part of Mysore State, Gulbarga occupies a central place with Bidar to its north and Raichur to its south. It lies between longitude 76°04′ and 77°42′ and latitude 16°12′ and 17°46′. **Location**

It is bounded on the north by Bidar district of Mysore State and Osmanabad district of Maharashtra, on the east by Medak and Mahabubnagar districts of Andhra Pradesh, on the south by Raichur district and on the west by Bijapur district of Mysore State and Sholapur district of Maharashtra State. **General boundaries**

The river Krishna runs in the southern side of Gulbarga district and forms the natural boundary between Gulbarga and Raichur districts. The river Bhima, another important river in the district, forms the western boundary between Bijapur and Gulbarga districts for some distance.

Area and Population

The total area of the district is 6,271.2* square miles or 16,242.4* square kilometres. Its population according to the 1961 census was 1,399,457. In area, it occupies the second place among the districts of Mysore State, but in population it stands seventh. In density, it is the fourteenth with a population of 223 per square mile, which is far below the State average of 319.

Administrative history

The course of history of the Karnatak areas of the former Bombay and Hyderabad States, now forming the Belgaum and Gulbarga divisions, is closely inter-connected. The earliest reference to the area now comprising the Gulbarga district occurs in an inscription of the reign of the Chalukyas in the sixth century. About the year 550 A.D., the Chalukyan ascendancy in the Deccan was a landmark in the history of India. Their first appearance south of the Narmada river was in the 4th century, previous to which they are said to have had fifty-nine predecessors, but of these nothing has been known authoritatively. There was a long drawn-out conflict between the Chalukyas and the Pallavas. In the 6th century, Pulikeshin 1 occupied Vatapi and made it his capital. By the middle of the eighth century, the Chalukyas were displaced by the Rashtrakutas who reigned in this part for over two centuries, with their capital at Manyakheta, now called Malkhed in Seram ** taluk of Gurbarga district. After the Rashtrakutas, the Chalukyas again came to power and ruled for over two hundred years with their capital at Kalyana which now forms part of Bidar district.

The Chalukyas were succeeded for a short while by the Kalachuris. They were obviously the feudatories of the Chalukyas and when the strength of the Chalukyas waned, they asserted themselves. Their capital was also Kalyana. About the close of the 12th century, the Yadavas of Devagiri and the Hoysalas of Dwarasamudra destroyed the supremacy of the Chalukyas and Kalachuris. About this time, the Kakatiya kings of Warangal came into prominence and the present Gulbarga and Raichur districts formed part of the dominions of the Raja of Warangal.

Under the Rashtrakutas, the Chalukyas of Kalyana and the Yadavas of Devagiri, the kingdom was divided into separate

* According to the figures furnished by the Survey of India, the area of the district is 6,265.56 square miles or 16,227.08 square kilometres. *See also* Appendix—Table I.

** Seram is also pronounced and written as Sedam.

regions for administrative convenience and the administrative set-up of each region differed slightly from the other. The administrative pattern described below relates to the Kannada region to which the present Gulbarga district belonged.

The Rashtrakutas were first feudatories of the early Chalukyas, but later overthrew them and assumed the imperial title and position. The crown prince was next only to the king in dignity. The high offices of the State were generally assigned to the sons of nobles and bore the titles of *Mahasandhivigrahika* (Minister for foreign affairs), *Bhandagarika* (Treasurer), *Baladhikrita, Dandanayaka* and *Mahaprachandadandanayaka* (three grades of military officers).

The pattern of local government under the Rashtrakutas was of the regional type. A number of villages were grouped into units and each unit had the number of villages comprising the group affixed to its name. There were separate officers known as *Nalgavundas* in charge of smaller groups of 300 and sometimes there was a single officer known as *Dharmamaharaja* in charge of two such small groups. The towns were ruled by *Ur-gavundas* and the villages had bodies known as *Mahajanas* which attested gifts by private individuals, received assignments of local taxes and made gifts of land for religious purposes.

The Chalukyas, besides their usual imperial titles, added to their names such epithets as *Samastabhuvanashraya* (refuge of the whole world), *Sriprithvivallabha* (favourite of fortune and the earth), *Satyashraya-kulatilaka* (forehead-ornament of the Satyashraya) and *Chalukyabharana* (ornament of the Chalukyas). High officers of the State consisted of *Dandanayaka* (General), the *Mahaprachandadandanayaka* (great august General), the *Dharmadhikarin* (Chief Justice) and the *Tadeyadandanayaka* (General in charge of reserves). There were also separate ministers for each region and the minister for peace and war for the Kannada country was known as *Kannada-Sandhivigrahika*. Some of the officers held combined charge of two or more offices. For purposes of local administration, the area was divided into large and small divisions with numeral endings varying from *32,000, 12,000, etc., through 3,000, 2,000, 1,000, etc., to 500, 300, etc. *Kampanas* (counties) of 20 and 30 were included in a group of 500. Besides

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* What these figures signify is uncertain but a reference to Aihole inscriptions seems to indicate that they refer to villages.

There is also a reference to this in "The Struggle for Empire", Bharatiya Vidya Bhavan Series, Vol. V, page 278. The relevant paragraph is quoted in full :—

"When we turn to the branch of local administration, we find that the towns and villages belonging to the South Maratha country were grouped into Districts containing small numeral endings (30 etc.), which again were

these divisions with numeral endings, there were also a number of *nadus*. Usually, the larger administrative divisions were governed by princes, high officials and feudatories and often governors of large divisions also held charge of smaller divisions. *Prabhus*, *Nal-gavundas* and *Dandanayakas* held charge of smaller divisions. There were also instances of both civil and military officers jointly governing a *nadu*.

The provincial governors were assisted by subordinate officers called *Mahaprachandadandanayaka* (great august General), *Sandhivigrahadhikari* (Minister of peace and war) who also often held additional charge of offices like that of *Mahapradhana* (Chief Minister) and steward of the royal household. There have been a number of instances where divisions, both big and small, were being administered by queens and princesses assisted by a council of ministers comprising the *Mane-perggade* (steward of the household), *Tantrapalas* (Councillors), *Pradhana* (Minister), *Aliya* and a secretary to the council. There were also separate officers administering different branches of taxation. Wives of governors were also sometimes associated with the administration of the provinces.

The towns and villages had a corporate constitution and there were assemblies known as *Mahajanas* consisting of several members, who sometimes numbered a thousand. The head of the assembly was known as *Ur-odeya* and there were also the *Gavunda* (sheriff) and *Perggade* (steward). These local bodies were also entrusted with the work of administering the permanent endowments made by queens, high officials and private individuals in favour of temples.

There were also a number of feudatories enjoying limited autonomy. They bore the title of king or *Mahamandaleshvara* and had a staff of officials similar to that of the paramount power. These chiefs also had sub-feudatories under them holding seigniories (*manneyas*). The wives of these chiefs were also associated with the administration of the area under them either along with their husbands or as subordinates to them. Both the feudatories and the holders of *manneyas* could assign lands on their own authority.

The Yadavas of Devagiri who took over the administration of the Gulbarga area from the later Chalukyas continued the Hindu traditions of governing the country. The king assumed the title of *Maharajadhiraja* together with other titles. His principal officers

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united into Divisions with higher numeral endings (1,000 etc.). Reference is also made to units of 70 and 300 villages which were comprised within the larger groups of 500 and 2000 respectively. The districts were ruled by officers called *Mahamandalesvara* and the like, whose office was sometimes shared by their wives."

were the *Mahapradhana* (Chief Minister), the *Senapathi* (Commander-in-Chief) and the *Dandanayaka* (Officer maintaining law and order). The Chalukyan type of administrative divisions with numeral endings was continued.

In 1294 A.D., when Jalal-ud-din Firuz Shàh was the Sultan of Delhi, his ambitious nephew, Ala-ud-din carried on an unauthorised campaign against the Yadavas and subdued them. He treacherously killed his uncle, the Sultan, in 1296 A.D. and proclaimed himself king. In 1318 A.D., the rebellion of the Devagiri ruler led to the final suppression of the Yadava dynasty. Similarly, the Kakatiya power was subdued in 1321 and the entire Deccan including the districts of Gulbarga, Raichur and Bidar, passed to the control of the Muslim Emperors at Delhi. From 1294 to 1347, it remained as a part of the Delhi Empire. The Delhi Empire was divided into a number of provinces and tributary States. With the growth of provincial administration, it became necessary to divide the province into shiqqs which were managed by the *shiqqdars;* these shiqqs were nothing but paraganas, the central authority always having the final say. The paragana to which a larger portion of the Deccan belonged was an important administrative unit. The various officials under the *shiqqdar* were the *mushrif* or *munshif*, a treasurer, two *karkuns* and a *qanungo*. The *amil* was the chief executive officer and the head of the paragana administration. The *mushrif* was the principal assessment officer. The *karkuns* were the registrars of the paragana. The village was the basic unit of the administration. It was allowed to retain the tradition of self-government.

In the middle of the 14th century, the revolt of the Muslim officers appointed from Delhi resulted in the founding of the Bahmani Kingdom in 1347 A.D. and the accession of Hassan Gangu to the throne at Daulatabad under the title Abu-i-Muzaffar Ala-ud-din Bahman Shah. Soon after the ceremony at Daulatabad, he selected Gulbarga as his capital. It remained the seat of the Bahmani Government till about 1424 when during the reign of Ahmad Shah, the capital was shifted to Bidar. After the conquest of Warangal, Bidar was the most central point and strategically it was of a much stronger situation and had a better climate than Gulbarga.

Under the Bahmanis, the kingdom was divided into four divisions and they were called tarafs. The officers in charge of these divisions were known as tarafdars who were supreme in their respective divisions. They collected the revenue, raised and commanded the army and made all appointments, both civil and military, in their provinces. They were liable to be transferred from one division to the other; this was intended to control the power of the tarafdars and to check them from becoming powerful. Some of them, in addition to being tarafdars, were also ministers

at the Bahmani court. Each taraf was sub-divided into what was known as sircar which in its turn was further divided into paraganas. The village was the smallest unit of administration and a number of villages formed a paragana.

When the Bahmani dynasty came to an end, the kingdom broke up into five independent kingdoms (Sultanates) of (1) the Adil Shahi of Bijapur, (2) the Qutb Shahi of Golconda, (3) the Nizam Shahi of Ahmadnagar, (4) the Barid Shahi of Bidar and (5) the Imad Shahi of Berar. The present Gulbarga district came partly under Bidar and partly under Bijapur. On the conquest of the Deccan by Aurangzeb in the 17th century, the area covered by the districts of Gulbarga, Bidar and Raichur, passed to the Mughal Empire of Delhi. In the early part of the 18th century, when the Mughal Empire was in the throes of decline, Asaf Jah, a distinguished general of Aurangzeb, who was appointed the Subedar of the Deccan with the title "Nizam-ul-Mulk", asserted his independence and formed the Hyderabad State in which a major part of the area now forming the Gulbarga district was also included. Surapura (Shorapur), comprising Shorapur, Shahapur and Jevargi, was a separate principality ruled from 1707 to 1857 by Rajas who had their capital at Surapura. The last of the Rajas, Venkatappa Naik, revolted against the British and the principality was made over to the Nizam after the suppression of the revolt.

During the rule of the early Nizams, there was no real administration in the modern sense. A good deal of land was given in the form of grants, jagirs and inams to nobles and others who promised to perform certain services, mainly, the maintenance of troops for use by the ruler. Considerable portions were also given as security for the payment of debts to people who had advanced money, or to the leaders of mercenary bands which had been recruited for military service and the payments for which could not be made. That portion of the land which remained with the State was farmed out on rent, the farmer being entitled to collect the State's share, deducting a percentage for cost of collection.

The ruler's privy purse was separated from the State revenue and he claimed a particular amount from the Government and if the State failed to pay that amount, he took over a portion of the land as his own for his own maintenance, but his claim on the Government for a fixed annual sum, however, continued.

The land given to nobles was known as paigah and those given to others for meritorious services rendered to Government were called jagirs. Land taken over by the Nizam from the Government for failure to pay his privy purse was known as Sarf-e-khas and the land that remained under Government control was

called Diwani land. Each had a separate administrative machinery of its own. This position continued till all the jagirs were abolished in 1949 and integrated with the Diwani (Government) areas of the State in May 1950. In Gulbarga district alone, out of the total number of 1,682 villages, 563 villages were jagirs.

In order to grant security to the peasantry and to increase the revenues, the areas directly under the Government were, after much struggle and experiment, divided into districts. A district was divided into taluks. Government officers were appointed to hold charge of the revenue and judicial administration. Zilla-bundi, as the formation of districts was called, was first done in 1863 and constituted one of the most remarkable reforms of Salar Jung, the then Prime Minister of Hyderabad. The State was divided into subas, each consisting of four districts and sadar taluqdars, who were later termed subedars, were in charge of them. The taluqdar, as he was termed, was in charge of each district and he had under him a second taluqdar for a sub-division, of which there were two or three in a district. There were two or three tahsils in each sub-division and a tahsildar was in charge of each of them.

The first district to be formed in the area at the time of Zillabundi was the Shorapur district, which originally had only five taluks but within a decade almost doubled itself on account of the annexation to it of several paraganas, and had nine taluks, namely, Shorapur, Gulbarga, Andola, Dehgaon, Chincholi, Seram, Kodangal, Gurmatkal and Mahagaon (Narona). On account of the difficulty experienced by the Sadar Taluqdar in supervising the offices of the Shorapur district, which had grown in size, the Prime Minister sanctioned the formation of a separate district by detaching some of the taluks from Shorapur district. The present Gulbarga district was thus first formed in 1873 consisting originally of six taluks, *i.e.*, Gulbarga, Chincholi, Seram, Kodangal, Gurmatkal and Mahagaon (Narona), detached from Shorapur district to form the new district. Shorapur district was again broken up in 1883, and Andola taluk was transferred to Gulbarga. At the time of the census of 1901, the division included the four districts of Gulbarga, Lingsugur, Osmanabad and Raichur. Gulbarga district, besides jagirs, had the following seven taluks* :—

	Taluk		*Area in sq. miles*	*Number of Towns*	*Villages*
1.	Gulbarga	..	524	1	108
2.	Mahagaon (Narona)	..	307	..	81
3.	Chincholi	..	277	..	69
4.	Kodangal	..	141	1	60
5.	Seram	..	267	1	72
6.	Gurmatkal	..	304	..	86
7.	Andola	..	608	..	117
	Jagirs, etc.	..	1,664	4	509
	Total	..	4,092	7	1,102

* Imperial Gazetteer of India, Vol. XII, 1908, P. 377.

Considerable administrative changes were made under the reconstitution of 1905. Lingsugur district was abolished and divided between Gulbarga and Raichur. Yadgir taluk was transferred from Raichur to Gulbarga district. Gurmatkal and Mahagaon (Narona) taluks were dvided among Seram, Kodangal, Gulbarga and Yadgir taluks. Shahapur and Shorapur from the former Lingsugur district were added to Gulbarga district and 73 villages from Mahabubnagar district were included in the Kodangal and Yadgir taluks. In place of Lingsugur district, which was abolished, Bidar district was added to Gulbarga Suba. After the reconstitution of 1905, the Gulbarga Suba consisted of Gulbarga, Osmanabad, Raichur and Bidar districts. Gulbarga district consisted of eight taluks—Gulbarga, Andola, Chincholi, Kodangal, Seram, Yadgir, Shahapur and Shorapur, five paigah *ilakas* of Aland*, Firozabad, Afzalpur, Kalgi and Chittapur and two jagirs of Tandur and Kosgi.

The district was divided into three sub-divisions, the first comprising the taluks of Seram, Kodangal and Yadgir, under a second taluqdar; the second comprising the taluks of Chincholi and Gulbarga, under a third taluqdar; and the third comprising the taluks of Andola, Shahapur and Shorapur, under the headquarters second taluqdar. There was a tahsildar in each taluk.

In 1921, Gulbarga district had five Diwani taluks and three Sarf-e-khas, and the rest were jagirs The area, number of towns and villages in the district in 1921 were as under :—

Taluk	*Area in square miles*	*Number of towns*	*Number of villages*
	SERAM DIVISION		
Seram ..	440	..	97
Gulbarga ..	807	1	246
Kodangal ..	622	2	178
Chincholi ..	823	..	135
	SHORAPUR DIVISION		
Shorapur (Sarf-e-khas) ..	527	1	175
Shahapur (do) ..	546	..	156
Andola (do) ..	709	..	162
Yadgir ..	507	1	133

* Aland is also pronounced and written as Alland.

JAGIR TALUKS

Taluk		*Area in square miles*	*Number of towns*	*Number of villages*
Kalyani (Jagir)	..	272	1	71
Chittapur (Jagir)	..	300	1	50
Tandur (Jagir)	..	211	1	75
Shahabad (Paigah)	..	256	1	26
Aland (Paigah)	..	402	1	68
Bashirabad (Paigah)	..	121	..	42
Afzalpur (Paigah)	..	372	..	56
Total	..	6,975	10	1,670

There were certain changes in the superstructure of the State administration now and then. At first, the Prime Minister bore the entire responsibility of Government, but this was slightly modified and other ministers were appointed to help him. These were subsequently replaced by Assistant Ministers and much later by a Council of Ministers with the Prime Minister as President of the Council. All the ministers derived their authority from the ruler. But the administrative set-up of the districts remained unchanged.

After the attainment of independence by India in 1947, rulers of Indian States acceded to the Indian Union, but the Nizam did not do so and tried to remain independent, with the result that a chaotic condition prevailed in the State and thousands of people were either driven out of their homes or left themselves through fear. The Indian troops marched into Hyderabad in September 1948. The Nizam dismissed his Council of Ministers and handed over the administration to the Military Governor. Thereafter, the State became a part of the Indian Union. The Military Governor and the Chief Civil Administrator replaced the old Council of Ministers and a Civil Administrator was appointed for each district. He had under him a Deputy Civil Administrator and an Assistant Civil Administrator on the one side and a first taluqdar, two or more second taluqdars and a number of tahsildars on the other. The State became a Part 'B' State of the Indian Union with the Nizam as the Rajpramukh.

After a year, the Military Governor and his assistants were replaced by a new Council of Ministers consisting of a Chief Minister assisted by seven ministers, four of whom were non-officials nominated by the principal political party in the State. Later, the Revenue Board was reconstituted to exercise supervision over the revenue and general administration side of district work.

In September 1949, one thousand and five hundred jagirs in Hyderabad comprising 6,500 villages covering about one-third of the area of the State were abolished. In Gulbarga district, four more taluks—Aland, Chittapur, Afzalpur and Tandur—created out of the adjoining jagir areas were added to the district. The Nizam was granted a compensation of Rs. 50 lakhs per annum for all the Sarf-e-khas areas surrendered to the State which then became Government lands. The district before the reorganisation of the States in 1956, consisted of 12 taluks, namely, Gulbarga, Chincholi, Seram, Kodangal, Shorapur, Shahapur, Andola, Yadgir, Aland, Chittapur, Afzalpur and Tandur, with three administrative sub-divisions at Gulbarga, Tandur and Yadgir.

Public opinion was critical of the classification of the States constituting the Union of India into three categories known as Part 'A', Part 'B', and Part 'C' States. It was argued that it offended the principles of equal rights and opportunities for the people of India. There was also agitation in the country for formation of States on a linguistic basis. The Government of India therefore considered it desirable to reorganise the States on a rational basis and to do away with the distinctions existing among the States, and the Prime Minister announced in the Parliament on 22nd December 1953 that a commission would be appointed to examine the question of the reorganisation of the States. Accordingly, the States Reorganisation Commission with Shri Fazl Ali as Chairman and Shri Hriday Nath Kunzru and Shri Kavalam Madhava Panikkar as members was appointed.

The Commission submitted its report on the 30th September 1955. Among other things, the Commission recommended that a Karnataka State comprising the Kannada-speaking areas of the former Bombay, Hyderabad and Madras States, the whole of Mysore State and Coorg should be formed. So far as Gulbarga district was concerned, the recommendation of the Commission was that the whole district may be included in the new State. But the States' Reorganisation Act of 1956 provided that the two taluks of Kodangal and Tandur should be added to the new State of Andhra Pradesh and that only the rest of the district should go to the new Mysore State. Accordingly, with effect from 1st November 1956, *i.e.*, the date on which the Act came into force, the reduced Gulbarga district consisting of the taluks of Gulbarga, Chincholi, Seram, Shorapur, Shahapur, Andola, Yadgir, Aland,

Chittapur and Afzalpur became part of the new Mysore State, and the taluks of Kodangal and Tandur formed part of Andhra Pradesh.

After the formation of the new Mysore State in 1956, Government decided to divide the State into four administrative divisions, each under a Divisional Commissioner; Gulbarga, which was a Suba (Diwani) in the ex-Hyderabad State, was continued as a Division with the three districts of Bidar, Gulbarga and Raichur, since Osmanabad, which was part of Gulbarga Suba in the ex-Hyderabad State, was transferred to the new Bombay State, now Maharashtra State.

With effect from the 1st February 1966, Bellary district which had been included in the Bangalore Division, was transferred to Gulbarga Division, which now comprises the four districts of Gulbarga, Bidar, Raichur and Bellary.

Sub-Divisions and Taluks

Gulbarga district consists of two Revenue Sub-Divisions and ten taluks, as given below :—

Taluk	*Area in*		*Number of inhabited villages*	*Number of towns*
	Sq. miles	*Sq. Km.*		
1. Gulbarga Sub-Division.—				
Gulbarga ..	663.7	1,719.0	137	1
Chittapur ..	691.2	1,790.2	116	2
Afzalpur ..	513.9	1,331.0	88	..
Aland .	678.4	1,757.1	127	1
Seram ..	365.4	946.4	104	1
Total ..	2,912.6	7,543.7	572	5
2. Yadgir Sub-Division.—				
Yadgir ..	665.6	1,723.9	129	2
Chincholi ..	608.6	1,576.2	133	1
Jevargi (Andola) ..	746.2	1,932.6	147	..
Shahapur ..	627.2	1,624.5	145	1
Shorapur ..	711.0	1,841.5	172	1
Total ..	3,358.6	8,698.7	726	5
Grand Total..	*6,271.2	*16,242.4	1,298	10

The taluks are sub-divided into revenue circles (corresponding to hoblies in former Mysore State) and there were 32 such circles till recently; but with effect from 1st June 1966, these 32 circles were reorganised into 48 circles.

* See footnote on page 2 and also Appendix-Table I.

The following statement gives the number and names of the previous and present revenue circles under each taluk :—

Taluk	Previous		Present	
	No. of circles	Names of circles	No. of circles	Names of circles
1	2	3	4	5
1. Gulbarga	3	(1) Gulbarga .. (2) Kamalapur .. (3) Farhatabad	6	(1) Gulbarga (2) Awarad (3) Kamalapur (4) Mahagaon (5) Farhatabad (6) Pattan
2. Chittapur	3	(1) Chittapur .. (2) Nalwar .. (3) Kalgi ..	5	(1) Chittapur (2) Kalgi (3) Shahabad (4) Nalwar (5) Gundgurthi
3. Aland	3	(1) Aland .. (2) Narona .. (3) Nimbarga ..	5	(1) Aland (2) Khajuri (3) Nimbarga (4) Madanhiperga (5) Narona
4. Seram	3	(1) Seram .. (2) Mudhol .. (3) Kodla ..	4	(1) Seram (2) Adki (3) Mudhol (4) Kodla
5. Afzalpur	2	(1) Afzalpur .. (2) Atnoor ..	3	(1) Afzalpur (2) Atnoor (3) Karajgi
6. Yadgir	4	(1) Yadgir .. (2) Balchakkar .. (3) Saidapur .. (4) Gurmatkal ..	6	(1) Yadgir (2) Balchakkar (3) Hattikuni (4) Saidapur (5) Konkal (6) Gurmatkal

1	2	3	4	5
7. Shahapur ..	4	(1) Hattigudur .. (2) Doranhalli .. (3) Gogi .. (4) Wadgera ..	5	(1) Shahapur (2) Gogi (3) Doranhalli (4) Hayyal—B (5) Wadgera
8. Jevargi ..	3	(1) Jevargi .. (2) Nelogi .. (3) Yadrami ..	5	(1) Jevargi (2) Ijeri (3) Nelogi (4) Yadrami (5) Andola
9. Chincholi ..	3	(1) Chincholi .. (2) Chimanchod (3) Sulepet ..	4	(1) Chincholi (2) Ainapur (3) Kodli (4) Sulepet
10. Shorapur ..	4	(1) Shorapur .. (2) Hunasgi .. (3) Kembhavi .. (4) Kodekal ..	5	(1) Shorapur (2) Hunasagi (3) Kakkera (4) Kodekal (5) Kembhavi
Total ..	32	..	48	

The Divisional Commissioner with his headquarters at Gulbarga is the administrative head of the four districts comprising the division. The Deputy Commissioner is the head of the district. Each revenue sub-division is administered by an Assistant Commissioner and each taluk is administered by a Tahsildar.

Natural Divisions

Gulbarga district consists of Deccan traps and sedimentary rock formations. The characteristic rock types found in Gulbarga district are hard, compact black rocks called basalts which present a scenery of undulating plains and groups of flat-topped hills and step-like terraces.

The general elevation ranges from 1,000 ft. to 2,000 ft. M.S.L. and is somewhat higher than 2,000 ft. in parts of Yadgir and Seram taluks. In Chincholi and Yadgir taluks there is some forest area while in other taluks, one does not come across much of forest area. In taluks like Aland and Yadgir, the land is undulating and uneven.

Hills

The entire district is situated in what is known as the Deccan plateau. A range of hills enters the north of Gulbarga district on the west and continues in the direction of south-east for about sixty miles. The remaining part of this district is flat. The slope of the country is from north to south and south to east. In Shahapur taluk, there is a small range called Muhammadapur Hills and Shahapur town is situated at the foot of these hills. A third range takes its name from Shorapur and is eight miles in length. Yet another range of hills in Yadgir taluk takes off from west to east for a length of twenty miles and enters Seram taluk.

Rivers

The main rivers of the district are the Krishna and the Bhima and the other rivers flowing in the district are the tributaries of the river Bhima. The Bhima itself is a tributary of the Krishna, which runs in the south of the district, forming a natural boundary between Gulbarga and Raichur districts. Therefore, the entire river system in the district is that of the Krishna.

Krishna

The river Krishna is venerated by the Hindus and a bath in the river is considered purificatory. In the *puranas*, the river goes by the name of Krishnavenya or Krishnavena, having its source in the Sahyadris (Western Ghats). The river enters the Mysore State near Ainapur village in the Belgaum district, after flowing for about 300 miles through the Maharashtra State. It flows for about 182 miles in the Mysore State before entering Andhra Pradesh near Deosugur village in Raichur district. The length of the river in Gulbarga district is about a hundred miles. The river cascades down a fall of about 200 feet, about one and a half to two miles down-stream of Narayanapur village in Shorapur taluk and this fall is known as the Jaldurg Falls. There is an old temple and also a fort at the Jaldurg Falls.

Its Mythical Association

There have been ample references to the Krishna in the *puranas*. According to the *Skanda Purana*, which contains a section called *'Krishna Mahatmya'* devoted to the glorification of the Krishna, this river was brought to the earth from the heavens. A legend has it that in the early part of the *Kaliyuga*, the sages were greatly depressed by the decrease of righteousness and increase of evil deeds among the people. They approached Narada for a remedy to help the good and the saintly. Narada, in his turn, conveyed their grievances to his father, Brahma. The latter, while creating a number of *teerthas* suggested to Vishnu to go to the assistance of the sages. Then, Vishnu created the Krishna out of his own body and invested it with 'marvellous' powers. Since Vishnu, *i.e.*, Lord Krishna, created the river, it came to be known as the Krishna after its creator.

The rainfall at the source of the river in the Western Ghats varies from 250 inches to 150 inches and dwindles down to less than 20 inches in the Bijapur, Gulbarga and Raichur districts.

Bhima

The river *Bhima* rises in the Western Ghats near Bhimashankar and flows south-east through Maharashtra and Mysore States for a length of 535 miles before joining the river Krishna near Sangam village. The river enters the Mysore State near the northern border of Bijapur district close to Sesgeri village in Gulbarga district and flows south-eastwards for a length of about 50 miles along the Bijapur district boundary and then enters the Gulbarga district. It then flows for about 136 miles entirely in Gulbarga district, till its confluence with the river Krishna. The Bhima river has a drainage area of 27,264 square miles. There is an important religious shrine at Ghangapur where the river Amerja joins the Bhima, wherein is situated the famous Dattatraya temple attracting a large number of pilgrims every year.

The Bhima has figured in the *Matsya*, *Brahma* and *Vamana Puranas* and also in the *Mahabharata*. It is considered a sacred river and is spoken of as a Maha Nadi, a great river. Near the source of this river in the Western Ghats, there is the *jyotirlinga* of Bhimashankar, one of the twelve *jyotirlingas* highly venerated by the Hindus.

Its mythological origin

One of the legends says that Lord Shiva after defeating Tripurasura came down to the Sahyadri mountain for taking rest. At that time, a legendary king of Ayodhya called Bhimaka went there to perform penance and propitiate Lord Shiva, for the sin of killing two sages who had assumed the form of deer. Shiva was pleased with his penance and told him to ask for some boon. King Bhimaka saw that Shiva was full of fatigue and there were drops of perspiration on his forehead. He therefore requested Shiva to turn the drops of perspiration on his forehead into a river. This is the explanation given for the rise of the river which is called Bhima after the king Bhimaka.

There are two bridges across this river, one on the Gulbarga-Jevargi road near Ferozabad and the other on the Yadgir-Shorapur road very near to Yadgir town. One bridge was under construction across this river, on the Gulbarga-Bijapur road, near Sonna village in Afzalpur taluk. No dams or anicuts have been constructed so far across this river in Gulbarga district.

Most of the areas on either banks of the river in this district consist of black cotton soil with patches of murram and sandy soils at the ridge points.

Several streams and rivers like the Bori, Amerja and Kagna join this river through its course in the district.

Amerja

The Amerja river rises near Alur village in Maharashtra State and flows south to join the river Bhima just upstream of the holy town of Ghangapur. The river enters Gulbarga district near

Nirgundi village of Aland taluk. The total length of this river in Gulbarga district is about 55 miles. The river flows through the Aland and Afzalpur taluks and crosses the Bombay–Madras section of the Central Railway near Ghangapur Railway Station.

There is a bridge across this river on Aland-Hiroli road near Shakapur village in Aland taluk. The soil in this area is mainly of the black type.

Bennithora

The Bennithora river rises on the ridges near the village of Malegaon in Maharashtra State and enters Gulbarga district near Hipperga village in Aland taluk. It forms the boundary between Gulbarga and Bidar districts for about four or five miles and flows generally in the north-easterly direction to join the Kagna river on its right bank near Malkhed. The total length of the river in Gulbarga district is about sixty miles. The river flows in Aland, Gulbarga and Chittapur taluks.

There is a bridge across this river on the Gulbarga-Humnabad road near Kurikotta village in Gulbarga taluk. Another bridge across this river on the Mahagaon-Kadaganchi road, near Kamalnagar village in Aland taluk, was under construction.

Mullamari

The river Mullamari rises near the village of Matala in Humnabad taluk of Bidar district. After flowing in a south-eastern direction for about thirty miles, it enters the Gulbarga district near the village of Kinni, forming the boundary between Gulbarga and Bidar districts up to Gobarwadi village. After running for about eight miles in Gulbarga district it again forms the boundary of the above two districts up to Kotgi village and continues to run completely in Gulbarga district in the same direction up to Chincholi town. The total length of the river from where it enters Gulbarga district up to Chincholi town is about 40 miles. From Chincholi onwards it runs south and flows for about 15 miles before joining the Kagna river on the right flank near the village of Jattur. Chincholi, the headquarters of Chincholi taluk, is situated on the left bank of Mullamari river. The river brings a lot of water during the monsoon.

The lands along the river mainly consist of black cotton soil. Many streams like Sarnalla and Karinalla join this river at various places during its course in this district.

Kagna

The river Kagna rises near Kohir in Andhra Pradesh and enters Gulbarga district near Habal village in Seram taluk. The river has a serpentine course, almost parallel to the Hyderabad-Wadi Railway line. The length of the river from where it enters the Gulbarga district to its confluence with the Bhima river near Hungunta village in Chittapur taluk, is about 40 miles. The main tributaries to this river are the Mullamari, Bennithora and

Kamalavathi streams. The river passes through Seram and Chittapur taluks. This river is not harnessed so far in this State for irrigation purposes. The Madras-Bombay section of the Central Railway crosses the river near Shahabad Railway Station. Seram, Malkhed and Chittapur are some of the important towns on the river bank. Malkhed is famous as a holy place, where the mortal remains of Shri Tikacharya are interred. To obviate difficulties in the lines of communication, the State Public Works Department decided to have a road bridge across the river Kagna to open up a road from Gulbarga town to Shahabad and then on to Wadi. This new bridge was opened for traffic in December 1965. Before the construction of this bridge vehicles had to take a detour to reach Shahabad.

Bori

Rising from the confluence of two big streams in Sholapur district of Maharashtra State, the Bori river, after flowing for a major portion in Maharashtra, enters the Gulbarga district near Jodki Khurd village in Afzalpur taluk and traverses in a zig-zag manner for about 15 miles before joining the Bhima river to the west of Afzalpur. The river brings in a lot of water during the monsoon and dwindles down considerably during summer.

Geology

The geology of Gulbarga has been recorded by Bruce Foote and is to be found forming part of the monograph published as Memoir XII of the Geological Survey of India. More recently the district has been surveyed in closer detail by Sri C. Mahadevan of the Hyderabad Survey whose observations are recorded in Volume V, Part I, of the Journal of the Hyderabad Geological Survey.

The southern portion of the district is covered entirely by the Deccan trap, while spreads of limestone and shale belonging to the Bhima series are seen in the middle of the district. The Bhimas represent a younger formation, younger to the Kaladgi rocks (Cuddapah) and are stated to show affinities to the younger Kurnool formation of the Cuddapah basin. The archaen rocks, composed of the Peninsular gneisses with lenses and patches of still older Dharwar rocks, are confined to the southern and eastern parts of the district.

The main geological formations met with in this area are :—

(1) Pleistocene and Recent : consisting of soil and laterite, alluvium and recent conglomerates ;

(2) Tertiary : composed of Deccan traps and inter-trappeans and infra-trappeans ;

(3) Puranas (Precambrian): composed of Upper Bhima shales and sandstones, Middle Bhima limestones and Lower Bhima shales and sandstones ; and

(4) Archaen : comprising Peninsular gneiss with associated younger granites and Dharwar schists.

Dharwars

The Dharwars occur merely as small patches amidst the gneiss and are of negligible size. Among these, the Kellur-Gogi and the Mangalur bands are of some importance.

The Kellur-Gogi patch of Dharwars consists of schists outcropping on the Krishna near Kellur and runs with intervals *via* Sharadalli, north of Sagar and extends up to Gogi. These schists are presumably a continuation of the prominent schist band traced as a continuous belt for a distance of over 30 miles in the Raichur Doab. In Gulbarga district, the band has been broken up and only remnant patches occur. They are free from auriferous quartz veins and are economically unimportant.

The Mangalur band forms a belt of hornblende schists extending from Bonal to Naganur for a length of about 16 miles having an average width of about three miles. The Mangalur gold mines, partly developed by the Hyderabad Deccan Mining Company, are situated in this belt. The schists of this band are similar to the epidiorites of Wandalli and Topaldoddi of the Maski band of schists. Typical hornblende schists occur to the north and north-east of Parsanhalli and are well exposed over the Kembhavi-Naganur track. Outliers of Dharwar rocks have been noted at Gogira and west and north of Malgatti.

There are numerous old workings for gold along the eastern margin of the belt from Mavinmatti to the north of Kardhalli along the zone of blue quartz reefs. The Hyderabad Deccan Company carried out prospecting in detail south of Mangalur and at a place called 'Makan-gavi'. Other prominent old workings are seen to the south of Mavinmatti, to the north-east of Janapur and to the west of the road to Kardhalli from Naganur.

Peninsular Gneissic Complex

The major portion of the area in Shahapur, Shorapur and Yadgir taluks is covered by Peninsular gneisses which bear an intrusive relationship with the Dharwars. Two types, a grey and a pink series with their own respective pegmatites have been recognised. The grey gneiss is conspicuously banded and developed in force on the hilly tracts north of Shorapur and Shahapur. Pink, fine-grained gneisses occur extensively to the north of Sagar and Rastapur.

The granites and gneisses of the complex are traversed by a number of dolerite dykes.

Purana formations

Overlying the steeply dipping granites and gneisses are seen horizontal beds of sandstone, shale and limestone in the valleys of the rivers Bhima and Kagna, which are designated as the Bhimas. These resemble the Kurnools, though they are nowhere seen in contact. There is little doubt, however, that they are

one and the same. The Bhimas attain their greatest development in Gulbarga district and occupy an area of nearly 2,000 sq. miles. The rock types, characteristic of this series, are a series of shales and limestones.

Bruce Foote divided the Bhima series into two stages, a lower consisting of conglomerates, sandstones and shales and an upper of limestone, sandstone and shales. More detailed work on these formations has been carried out by Mahadevan who has recognised three distinct stages, a lower of sandstone passing upwards into shales, a middle of limestone and an upper of shales and local sandstones.

The Bhimas are covered by the Deccan traps to the west, north and north-east and therefore, the exact limits of these sedimentary rocks cannot be determined or surmised. The rocks of the Bhima series do not show any metamorphism. They are for the most part horizontal. Though conditions were favourable for the preservation of organic remains, the whole formation is devoid of any recognisable fossils.

The lower Bhima series consists of several basal conglomerates and grits and are succeeded by sandstones, and green and purple shales of a good thickness. They are best seen in the Kagna basin and in Shorapur, Shahapur and Yadgir taluks of the district.

The middle Bhima series consists almost exclusively of limestone and occupies an area of nearly 1,500 square miles in the district. The limestones consist of horizontal beds varying from six inches to two or three feet in thickness with intercalated layers of limestone flags. The limestones analyse 80 to 95 per cent $Caco_3$ and contain magnesium carbonate varying from one to three per cent. The Shahabad Cement Company uses the limestones from near Bankur for the manufacture of cement at Shahabad. The flaggy limestones near Chittapur, Tandur and Wadi are extensively quarried. Shahabad stone is famous for its light blue colour and the polish it takes, and finds a wide market.

The limestones of the top-most stage are overlain by purple shales which are calcareous immediately above the limestone, but grade upwards to ordinary mud shales. These shales which form the upper Bhima series are well developed in the Jevargi taluk.

The upper Bhima shales are covered over by Deccan traps and almost invariably, the shales immediately below the Deccan traps are coloured by iron oxide.

Infra-Trappeans

Layers of unconsolidated mud and grit, reddish or whitish in colour, are described as occurring as beds varying in thickness from

two to nine feet underlying the upper Bhimas and below the Deccan trap.

Deccan Traps

The Deccan traps cover an area of nearly 1,500 square miles in the northern portion of the Gulbarga district. The taluks of Aland, Afzalpur and part of Chincholi are covered by trap flows.

These rocks are composed of soft and hard lava flows whose weathering has produced flat-topped hills and terrace-like features. The traps, being the youngest formation in this area, cover all the earlier formations. Towards the west of the district, they cover the shales or limestones of the upper and middle Bhima series and in the north, the limestones of the middle Bhima series and towards north-east, they overlie the granites.

Except for some minor baking effects, the traps do not show any major contact phenomena with the underlying formations. The traps are found confined between 1,400 feet and 2,500 feet contours and attain maximum development in Bidar and the western parts of Gulbarga district. The rocks are highly jointed and exfoliate, leaving massive hard cores. The softer layers in the traps consist of two varieties—(1) an amygdaloidal variety with abundant zeolites and (2) a friable marram-like layer which is derived from the disintegration and decomposition of the traps. These softer layers are found to be water-bearing on account of their porous nature. Kankar is of common occurrence along the joints and exfoliation planes of the trap. Cryptocrystalline silica in the form of agate, chalcedony, opal and jasperoid chert is commonly seen in association with the traps.

Large blocks of chert are occasionally strewn over the traps. They are usually a foot in thickness but are very irregular and nodular in shape. They weather yellow brown, but when broken, are pale grey, sometimes appearing mottled, as if they were recemented breccia but are always dense.

Such chert accumulations are found at three levels of 1,900 feet, 1,500 and 1,570 feet. Between Chincholi and Sulepet there is a great deal of chert in large blocks. It does not form a regular bed but occurs as a series of nodular lenticles about a foot thick, lying close together.

Inter-Trappeans

During the period of volcanic activity in which a large tract of the area was flooded with Deccan lava flows, there were times in which the volcanic activity was interrupted by a period of quietude. These periods were long enough for shallow lakes to form on the unequal surface of the trap and for life to appear in them before they were covered by the subsequent lava flows. Consolidated sediments formed in these lakes in between layers of trap

are known as inter-trappeans and they carry impressions of organic remains.

In the neighbourhood of Chincholi, chert beds with a top layer of clay are found lying between the flows. Best examples are seen near Kudhalli, Korvi, Sulepet, Dastapur and Chima Idlai. The clayey material in these horizons has properties of Fuller's earth.

North of Gurmatkal in Yadgir taluk, inter-trappean cherts with associated marls are well seen. Both the cherts and marls contain fossil remains of lacustrine origin, whose age ranges from upper Cretaceous to lower Tertiary.

Laterite

Deccan trap hills to the west of Chincholi are frequently capped by laterite. In these are found local pockets of limonite and hematite which have been used in the past as ores for smelting iron. At Somalingadhalli, there are slag heaps testifying to the work of the ancients.

Soil

Overlying the Deccan traps and the Bhimas, there are thick spreads of black soil, some of which are as much as 30 feet thick as seen at Akandhalli, Yetnal, Kachapur and Wadi. In the area occupied by granites, the soil varies from loamy to sandy. Frequently pebbles of chert, limestone, shale and granites are embedded in the soils. The soil in the area between Allapur, Tandur and Kodangal is coarse gravelly with spreads of quartz and felspar.

Mineral Wealth-Gold

Numerous old workings for gold scattered in the western parts of Shorapur taluk near Mangalur indicate that this area was systematically explored, prospected and mined for gold by ancient miners who were skilled in mining and metallurgy. In 1905, a gold mining company known as Hyderabad Deccan Company came into existence to examine all the old workings left untouched by the previous prospecting operations.

This company prospected in detail many old working sites in Shorapur area. One is to the south of Mangalur and the other at a place called 'Makan-gavi'. No encouraging report is known of the pit they sunk south of Mangalur, but 'Makan-gavi' appears to have been proved to be a promising field. Due to outbreak of war in 1914, mining was suspended. This was the only mine after Hutti on which hope had been entertained.

Besides the two explored by the Hyderabad Deccan Company, there are other sites of old workings of which the following may be mentioned :—(1) to the south of Mavinmatti, (2) to the north of Janapur and (3) to the west of the road to Kardhalli

from Naganur. Gold quartz fragments from these areas show traces of gold on panning.

A run of old workings was noted just north of the Acharyara Bhavi (a well) south of Mangalur road and this was prospected by pits and trenches. The ore recovered from these working is stated to have given encouraging results. A shaft had been sunk in the well itself to a depth of 220 feet.

In the Makan-gavi area, two shafts were sunk, one known as the "Mandik Shaft" on the eastern old workings and the other, the "Holman Shaft", further south. It appears from the prospecting work that a promising lode had been discovered in this field. A survey conducted by the Hyderabad Geological Survey has disclosed a few more old workings on the eastern flank of Mangalur hill and some of the quartz obtained from these showed indications of gold after panning.

Copper

The debris lying around Tintini village contains chalcopyrite and other copper minerals. The trappoid schists and the greyish quartz veins cutting through them show copper mineralisation.

Quartz

Large quantities of pure quartz are available in the Yadgir taluk. There are indications in some places that there were indigenous glass smelting centres in the area. In Shorapur taluk, at a place called Jamalpur, furnaces and glass slags are still in evidence though at present glass is not smelted here. The quartz available in the locality is free from iron and forms an excellent raw material for the glass industry. Some of the areas are under mining leases and the material is being made use of in the manufacture of glass by some of the reputed glass works of Bombay. Important localities are (1) between Arkera and Ramasamudram villages along Yadgir-Narayanapet road, (2) between Toldini and Rajan-kollur, (3) about four furlongs west and north-west of Siddapur and (4) in the Krishna river, south-east of Gadalmari in an island called Burchigudda.

The sandstones of Kodekal plateau which are traceable for a distance of nearly ten miles have been found to be white and pure inside, though stained at the surface with iron oxides. This material is likely to be of use in the glass industry.

Sand useful for moulding and stowing purposes is found all along the *nala* courses near Yadgir town. The sand is white in colour and occurs as a thin covering varying from two to eight inches in thickness in *nala* beds.

Agates

Agates of grey colour with fine banding are found to the north of Yanegundi and at Burgapally in Yadgir taluk in the form of a

thin bed of about two to three feet thickness below the Deccan trap. They are capable of being cut and polished into ornamental wares.

Cherts of variegated colour occur at Maralbhavi and Hagaratgi of Shorapur taluk, sometimes as massive beds. They are very useful for inlay work on account of their pleasing shades.

Good crystals of tourmaline occur associated with pegmatite veins running in north-south direction on the eastern margin of the Mangalur schist patch in Shorapur taluk. Loose crystals detached from the main mass are found strewn all over the field. The crystals range in size from half an inch to six inches in length.

Gypsum

Gypsum useful for the cement industry is found to the south of Gungurthi, 16 miles east of Gulbarga along the Gulbarga-Seram road. The mineral occurs in black cotton soil in the form of small crystals and nodules. The nodules contain a thin layer of kankar showing a kernel of glistering plates of gypsum. Small crystals are found distributed in black soil near Kembhavi in the Shorapur taluk.

Calcareous powder rich in lime occurs between Hebbal Buzurg and Wajjal, in Shorapur taluk. The deposit occurs at the junction between the Peninsular gneisses and the limestones of the Bhima series. The calcareous spread is about a mile and a half in length with an average width of 400 feet and is about five feet in thickness.

Deposits of Fuller's earth occur at Korvi, Sulepet, Chima Idlai, Dastapur, Navandgi, Kodli, Gunhalli and other villages in Chincholi taluk and at Sugoor in the Chittapur taluk. This earth has the unique property of bleaching vegetable and mineral oils. The main use of this material is in the petroleum-refining industry for filtering and clarifying lubricants. It is also used in water purification and in removing odours from oily waste material. Trials on bleaching of raw lubricating oil have shown that Korvi earth is similar to imported earth, at present being used in the country for the bleaching of lubricating oils. It has been found to be the best in the sense that it can be used for various purposes in the natural condition unlike other earths which require processing.

The greenish shales which cap sandstones near Tirth in Shorapur taluk are used locally by the potters for the preparation of artistic pottery and the clay is in great demand on account of its excellent quality.

Limestone

Extensive deposits of limestone suitable for the manufacture of cement are found in Gulbarga district, notably at the following

places: Chittapur, Jevargi, Chincholi, Shahapur, Shorapur, Nalwar, Wadi, Shahabad, Seram and Malkhed, covering an area of 1,500 sq. miles. At present, the Associated Cement Company which has established a big cement plant at Shahabad is exploiting, on a large scale, the limestone occurrences near Bankur; 2,500 tons of limestone are quarried per day and utilised in the manufacture of cement.

Soapstone

A small outcrop of soapstone extending about half a mile in length and 200 yards in width is found about two miles to the north of Malkapalli in Yadgir taluk. The rock forms a suitable material for soapstone utensils, and the broken and half-made pieces strewn here point to the former existence of such an industry.

A large number of salt pans are found scattered in different parts of the district. Both edible and tanning salt can be produced by lixiviation process. The important site is Bichabal village in Shorapur taluk.

Building Stone

The limestones, the Deccan traps and granites and sandstones in the area form excellent building material. Old temples, *dargahs*, forts and other edifices testify to their excellence and durability. In the limestone areas, even the poorest dwellings are built with dressed massive limestones and roofed with limestone slabs in an attractive and neat manner.

There is a large number of quarries all over the limestone area. Polished limestone slabs of various sizes are in great demand for flooring, roofing and other constructional purposes.

Flora

The situation of Gulbarga district within the Deccan Plateau with its moderate elevation gives it a dry climate. Its almost complete absence of lofty mountain ranges is a special feature which contributes to the formation of two types of forests, deciduous in the north-east zone with a fairly dense tree growth and the scrub type fit for firewood only in the south-east. The forests of the district, which yield some revenue are situated in the Chincholi taluk where timber of appreciable girth is got from well-grown trees. The north-east zone has a large tree growth in patches on the hill slopes. The chief trees grown are Teak (Tectona grandis), Rosewood (Dalbergia latifolia), Nallamaddi (Terminalia tomentosa) and Satin (Chloroxylon sweitenia). The forest area of Gulbarga district is 267.20 square miles which is about 4 per cent of the geographical area of the district.

The distribution of forest area taluk-wise was as under in 1964-1965 :—

Taluk		*Acres*
Gulbarga	..	12,256
Chittapur	..	6,023
Yadgir	..	57,549
Shahapur	..	4,799
Shorapur	..	13,430
Jevargi	..	..
Afzalpur	..	..
Aland	..	4,326
Chincholi	..	70,087
Seram	..	1,936
	Total	1,71,006

From the above, it will be seen that Chincholi taluk has nearly half the entire forest area of the district, with Yadgir taluk coming next.

The forests in the area are being exploited according to the prescriptions of a working plan. In the areas which are devoid of vegetation, attempts to take up contour trenching followed by afforestation are being made. The policy of the Government is to carefully preserve the forests as far as possible and to add to the total acreage by taking up fresh areas for afforestation. There are no evergreen forests in the district.

During the First and Second Five-Year Plan periods, advance trenching, sowing, establishment and maintenance of nurseries were carried out under the Soil Conservation and Afforestation Scheme, quarters were constructed for the staff, agave hedges were planted, a dry teak nursery consisting of 100 beds and one unit nursery were established, and a teak plantation was raised over 110 acres. Two thousand eight hundred and nineteen acres of plantations were raised during the Second Five-Year Plan.

During the Third Five-Year Plan, schemes were taken up for providing housing facilities to the departmental subordinates living in the interior parts of the forests, improving grazing areas, raising cashew plantations, securing excess gairana areas (gomal areas) from the Revenue Department and also the old jagir areas and bringing them under proper management to protect and rehabilitate them wherever necessary. The schemes include raising of plants along road sides, railway sides and canal sides, raising of village wood lots under Farm Forestry, to create fuel reserves with a view to helping the agricultural population from shortage of fuel,

meeting the requirements of agricultural implements, and providing fodder and grazing grounds for the village cattle. A scheme under soil conservation and afforestation has also been taken up covering approximately 1,000 acres annually.

The main items of revenue are from timber, firewood, Gule Rosa (Cymbopogan martini), beedi leaves, tanning bark and seetaphal.

The species found in the north-east zone are Teak, Rosewood, Bijasal (Pterocarpus marsupium), Satin, Tirman (Anogiessus latifolia), Siris (Albizzia lebbak), Narlinga (Albizzia amara), Amaltas (Cassia fistula), Chanangi (Lagerstroemia parviflora), Gumpana (Lennia grandis), Anduk (Boswellia serrata), Nallamaddi, Ermaddi (Terminalia arjuna), Ebony (Diospyros melanoxylon), Mohwa (Bassia latifolia), Tada (Grewia taliaefolia), Bhilawa (Semecarpus anacardium), Halda (Terminalia chebula), Tari (Terminalia belerica), Sundra (Acacia sundra), Billphal (Aegle marmelos), Gumartek (Gmelina arborea), Sandal (Santalum album), Chironji (Buchanania latifolia) and Somi (Soymida febrifuga).

In the south-east zone, consisting of the dry mixed deciduous type, Narlinga, Siris, Eppa (Hardwickia binata), Babul, Satin, Tirman, Neem (Melia indica), Palekodsha (Wrightia tinctoria), Palas (Butea frondosa), Bhilawa, Jamoon (Eugenia jambolana), Gumpana, Bamboo (Dendrocalamus striatus), Tarwad (Acacia auriculata), Mango (Mangifera indica), Peddaman (Ailantus excelsa), Junble-anar (Dodonaea viscosa), Sharifa (Anona squamosa), Karanj (Pongamia glabra), Danti (Celastrus semgolensis), Challe (Zizyphus xylopyrus), Chanangi, Ritha (Sapindus emerginatus), Nakkera (Ximenia americana) and Lantana (Lantana camara) are found. Most of these species have a stunted growth

The minor forest produce consists of honey and wax, barks, fruits, resins and gums, tanning barks (bark of Cassia fistula and Cassia auriculata), Myrobalans and Rosa (flowers of Cymbologon martini), Tamarind (fruit of Tamarindus indica), Sharifa (fruit of Anona squamosa), Soapnut (fruit of Sapindus emarginatus) and Chironji (fruit and seeds of Buchanania latifolia).

The flora of the district is on the whole not of the rich type Nevertheless, there is some timber wealth. The teak grown in the district is well-known for its strength and durability. This is due to the resinous matter in the pores which resist the action of water. Nallamaddi is a wood which has a dark brown colour, and is hard and durable. This is a good fuel tree. Babul is used for poles and spokes and wheels of carts. Honne (Pterocarpus marsupium) is occasionally grown for use in making furniture. The wood is

widely used for cart wheels, window frames, agricultural implements and the like. Anduk is an interior wood and is used as firewood or for preparation of charcoal. The gum resin is used for medicinal purposes. Acacia sundra has branches of dark brown colour and the wood is heavier and more durable. Some of the more important wood species have been described as of economic value. The chief tree growths are Tectona grandis, Dalbergia latifolia, Terminalia tomentosa, Pterocarpus marsupium, Chloroxylon sweitenia, Lagerstroemia parviflora, Acacia sundra, Anogeisus latifolia, Boswellia seratta, Melia indica, Eugenia jambolana, Dendrocalamus striatus, Buchanania latifolia, Bassia latifolia and Phoenix sylvestris.

In the past, the deciduous forests were fully exploited, with the result that forests of old have become barren. The Forest Department has a number of plans to regenerate the lost forests and work in this connection has been in progress for some time.

The forest flora is scattered in small bits except in Chincholi taluk where trees grow to pole size. The other taluks have patches of forests mostly of the scrub type, yielding no timber at all. Sandal is strictly preserved.

Fauna

In the absence of thick evergreen forests in the district, wild life, as such, is not abundant. Some portions situated in the north-east (Chincholi taluk) have deciduous forests. The rest are only scrub forests merging into thorny species providing little cover to animals. From the reports received from the Divisional Forest Officer, one can easily assess that the fauna of the region is not rich. The deciduous forests have a few varieties of langoors and monkeys. Beasts of prey belonging to the carnivora class are seen only very occasionally. A few panthers (Felis parduus) are found in the semi-jungle areas and they come to villages to lift cattle, dogs and donkeys. The tiger is almost extinct and the few that may have been seen in recent years most probably came from the neighbouring areas in search of prey. Bears are found in some areas in the Chincholi forest range. They do much harm to the cultivated fields. The hyena is common in all forest areas and can be seen prowling round the village homesteads at night. It takes off goats and sheep. Generally, this animal lives on carrion. Wolves are found in the open scrub jungles. Wild dogs are also seen in packs, attacking cattle and spotted deer and even challenging the bigger carnivora to a fight.

Among the harmless types, the spotted deer and sambhar live in the semi-forest regions. The black buck is common in the open scrub jungles. The Indian fox is commonly seen all over in the open country. Jackals are also seen prowling about trying to lift goats and sheep.

Birds

The district has the usual varieties of birds like the parrot, starling, swallow, doves, wood-peckers, peacock, owls, eagle and some humming birds. Pigeons are getting extinct owing to large-scale poaching.

Reptiles

The reptiles found in the district are the cobra, viper, pangolin and the ghodphod. Occasionally, pythons are found in the deciduous regions. Chameleons are also to be found. Scorpions are common in summer.

Game Laws

Under the Hyderabad Game Rules, shooting without a licence is prohibited in reserved forests. There are no shooting blocks in the district. The shooting of the black buck is permitted from 1st December to the end of May. The permit for shooting is valid for one month and shall in no case exceed three months. Fees are charged for big and small game, with a deposit amount. The Wild Life Preservation Act, 1953, has not yet been made applicable in the district. Hence, the Hyderabad Game Rules are in operation throughout the area.

Climate

The climate of the district is generally dry and healthy, and the seasons are on the pattern of those generally in the Deccan. The summer season starts by about the middle of February and continues to about the first week of June. The south-west monsoon season follows thereafter and extends upto the end of September. October and November constitute the post-monsoon season. The period from December to the middle of February is the cold season.

Rainfall

Records of rainfall in the district are available for four rain-gauge stations for periods ranging from 22 to 77 years. The statement of the rainfall at these stations and for the district as a whole are given in Tables 1 and 2. The average annual rainfall in the district is 715.5 mm (28.17″). The rainfall in the district was 869.7, 1,031.1, 940.3 and 937.5 mms. in 1961, 1962, 1963 and 1964, respectively. The rainfall increases from the south-west towards the north-east. The rainfall in the south-west monsoon season constitutes about 80 per cent of the annual rainfall. September is the rainiest month. The district gets some rain during the latter part of the summer and post-monsoon months mostly as thunder showers. The variation in the rainfall from year to year is large In the fifty-year period from 1901 to 1950, the highest annual rainfall amounting to 200 per cent of the normal was received in 1903; 1920 was the year with the lowest rainfall which was 51 per cent of the normal. In eleven years out of the fifty, the district received rainfall less than 80 per cent of the normal, two consecutive years of such low rainfall occurring twice. Rainfall less than 80 per cent of the normal in two consecutive years has occurred once or twice at all the stations. Even three consecutive years

of such low rainfall occurred once at Gulbarga. The large variations in the rainfall from year to year, both in its amount and in its distribution through the seasons, render the district liable to drought. It will be seen from Table 2 that the rainfall in the district was between 500 and 1,000 mm. (19.69" and 39.37") in 41 years out of 50.

On an average, there are 47 rainy days (*i.e.*, days with rainfall of 2.5 mm. or more) in a year in the district.

Temperature

The only meteorological observatory in the district is at Gulbarga. The data of this station may be taken as representative of the condition in the district as a whole. December is the coldest month with the mean daily maximum temperature at 29.7°C (85.5°F) and the mean daily minimum at 14.8°C (58.6°F). From the middle of February, temperature rises rather rapidly till May, which is the hottest month. The mean daily maximum temperature during this month is 40.6°C (105.1°F) and the mean daily minimum temperature is 25.9°C (78.6°F). The day temperatures sometimes go up to 45°C (113.0°F) in the hot season. The dry heat is sometimes very trying. When the south-west monsoon advances into the district by about the first week of June, temperatures decrease appreciably and the weather becomes milder. The day temperatures increase a little with the withdrawal of the monsoon by about the end of September, but night temperatures decrease. After October, both day and night temperatures decrease gradually, the drop in the night temperatures being more rapid.

The highest maximum temperature recorded at Gulbarga was 45.0°C (113.0°F) on 18th May 1912 and on 1st June 1923. The lowest minimum temperature was 5.6°C (42.1°F) on 18th December 1945.

Humidity

The period from December to May is the driest part of the year when the relative humidity in the mornings is between 40 and 60 per cent, and in the afternoons about 20 to 30 per cent. Humidity increases by about 20 to 30 per cent during the south-west monsoon months.

Cloudiness

Skies are moderately to heavily clouded in the south-west monsoon period. Cloudiness decreases during the post-monsoon season. During the rest of the year, the skies are generally clear or lightly clouded.

Winds

Winds are generally light to moderate with some increase in force in the latter half of summer and the monsoon season. Winds are from directions between south-west and north-west in the monsoon season. In the post-monsoon season, they are north-easterly or easterly. In the cold seasons, winds blow mainly from

directions between north-east and south-east. In the summer season, winds are variable in direction, but by May, winds from directions between west and north predominate.

Special weather phenomena

The district is seldom affected by full-fledged cyclonic storms. But in the post-monsoon months, some of the depressions from the Bay of Bengal become diffused on crossing the east coast of India. In their passage westwards across the peninsula, these diffused depressions affect the district and its neighbourhood causing wide-spread heavy rain. Thunder-storms occur in April, May and early June and at the close of the monsoon season.

Tables 3, 4 and 5 give the temperature and humidity, mean wind speed and frequency of special weather phenomena, respectively, for Gulbarga.

TABLE—1

Normals and extremes of rainfall

Gulbarga District

Station	*No. of years of data*	*January*	*February*	*March*	*April*	*May*	*June*	*July*	*August*	*September*	*October*	*November*	*December*	*Annual*	*Highest annual rainfall as % of normal & year**	*Lowest annual rainfall as % of normal & year**	*Heaviest rainfall in 24 Hrs*** *Amount (mm)*	*Heaviest rainfall in 24 Hrs*** *Date*
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19
Gulbarga	46 a	6.1	7.1	9.1	19.1	27.9	106.4	136.1	131.6	185.4	64.3	32.5	4.1	729.7	196	49	147.3	16th Sept. 1928
	b	0.3	0.5	0.8	1.8	2.5	6.8	9.0	7.7	9.5	4.2	1.8	0.3	45.2	(1903)	(1920)		17th Oct. 1893
Yadgir	28 a	4.1	7.9	7.6	21.8	22.6	96.8	132.8	110.7	165.3	70.6	31.0	3.6	674.8	146	53	151.9	3rd July 1932
	b	0.3	0.5	0.6	1.9	2.2	8.0	11.5	8.2	9.6	4.4	1.9	0.2	49.3	(1932)	(1937)		
Navandgi	20 a	0.8	4.1	5.6	17.5	14.7	102.9	151.4	150.1	180.9	57.7	15.0	1.8	702.5	164	47	114.3	26th Aug. 1942
	b	0.1	0.3	0.5	1.1	1.3	5.9	9.5	8.6	8.5	2.7	0.9	0.2	39.6	(1938)	(1931)		
Gulbarga District	a	3.1	6.3	7.2	20.3	23.3	104.5	148.1	134.8	181.8	60.2	23.3	2.6	715.5	200	51		
	b	0.2	0.5	0.7	1.7	2.2	7.3	10.5	8.7	9.7	3.8	1.4	0.2	46.9	(1903)	(1920)		

(*a*) Normal rainfall in mm.
(*b*) Average number of rainy days (days with rain of 2.5 mm. or more).
* Years given in brackets.
**Based on all available data up to 1957.

TABLE—2

Frequency of Annual Rainfall in the Gulbarga District

(Data 1901—1950)

Range in mm	*No. of years*	*Range in mm*	*No. of years*
301—400	1	901—1,000	3
401—500	1	1,001—1,100	4
501—600	13	1,101—1,200	2
601—700	10	1,201—1,300	0
701—800	9	1,301—1,400	0
801—900	6	1,401—1,700	1

TABLE—3

Normals of Temperature and Relative Humidity

Gulbarga

Month	*Mean Daily Maximum Temperature*	*Mean Daily Minimum Temperature*	*Highest Maximum ever recorded*		*Lowest Minimum ever recorded*		*Relative Humidity*	
	.C	.C	.C	*Date*	.C	*Date*	0830	1730*
January ..	30.7	15.7	36.1	31st Jan. 1897	6.7	1st Jan. 1937	57	31
February ..	33.4	18.0	38.3	28th Feb. 1903	11.1	3rd Feb. 1911	48	27
March ..	37.3	21.5	42.8	28th March 1892	12.8	5th March 1910	41	23
April ..	39.6	24.7	43.9	30th April 1923	13.3	1st April 1902	45	25
May ..	40.6	25.9	45.0	18th May 1912	18.3	2nd May 1892	51	25
June ..	35.4	23.6	45.0	1st June 1923	16.1	22nd June 1895	71	50
July ..	31.9	22.3	37.2	2nd July 1920	17.2	11th July 1920	79	62
August ..	31.6	22.0	37.8	5th August 1899	18.3	1st August 1920	78	59
September ..	31.4	21.9	37.2	5th Sept. 1926	17.8	30th Sept. 1954	78	61
October ..	32.5	20.6	37.8	16th Oct. 1899	10.0	27th Oct. 1905	66	45
November ..	30.7	17.3	35.6	3rd Nov. 1940	7.8	26th Nov. 1945	61	36
December ..	29.7	14.8	34.4	5th Dec. 1920	5.6	18th Dec. 1945	58	32
Annual ..	33.7	20.7					61	40

* Hours I. S. T.

TABLE—4

Mean Wind Speed in Km/hr

Gulbarga

Jan.	*Feb.*	*March*	*April*	*May*	*June*	*July*	*Aug.*	*Sept.*	*Oct.*	*Nov.*	*Dec.*	*Annual*
7.7	8.9	9.5	10.6	13.7	16.7	17.7	15.1	11.1	9.3	9.8	8.2	17.5

TABLE—5

Special Weather Phenomena

Gulbarga

Mean No. of days with	*Jan.*	*Feb.*	*Mar*	*Apr.*	*May*	*June*	*July*	*Aug.*	*Sept.*	*Oct.*	*Nov.*	*Dec.*	*Annual*
Thunder .	0.0	0.8	1.7	3.4	3.7	2.5	0.5	1.4	3.6	1.7	0.0	0.0	19.3
Hail ..	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0 0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
Dust-Storm ..	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.1	0.4	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.7
Squall ..	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
Fog ..	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0

CHAPTER II

HISTORY

FOR nearly fifteen hundred years or more, the district of Gulbarga or Kalburgi, as people of the district call it, has had its influence on the historical and cultural life of the Deccan plateau. Several of the important ruling dynasties of the Deccan had their capital in this district. The capital of the Rashtrakutas was Malkhed, which is twenty-two miles from Gulbarga towards the east. In the same manner, Kalyana, the capital city of the later Chalukyas and Kalachuris, formed part of the Gulbarga district till the distribution of taluks at a later date. Gulbarga city itself was selected as capital by Ala-ud-din Bahman Shah. It remained the seat of the Bahmani Government from 1347 to 1424, when during the reign of Ahmad Shah Wali (1422-1436) the capital was shifted to Bidar. The Bahmani kings, during this period, ruled over the Deccan plateau from the Krishna river to the Tapti river and from the Western Ghats to the Telangana area. These facts, therefore, have naturally left their indelible impression on the history and culture of these parts.

Historical importance of the district

Near some villages of Jevargi taluk on the Bhima river, Rajan-Kollur in the Shorapur taluk, Vibhuthihalli in the Shahapur taluk and at Hagaratgi and some other places in the district, we come across relics of an ancient, probably pre-historic, civilisation, the nature of which is still not clear. These pre-historic remains consist of cromlechs, kistavaens and cairns

Pre-history

Cromlechs are constructed with three flat stones placed edge-ways in the ground enclosing three sides with a fourth stone at the top as a cover, its one side, usually the north or the north-west, being open. Several of such cromlechs at Rajan-Kollur are surrounded by circles of stones. Captain Taylor opines that they are altars or covered temples in which funeral ceremonies were performed.

Cromlechs

Kistavaens found here are described as being similar to those in England and Wales. They form the majority of monuments at Rajan-Kollur and Hagaratgi. One peculiarity with these kistavaens is that each of these has a circular aperture in one stone or monolith,

Kistavaens or Closed Cromlechs

apparently, as Captain Congrove suggests, for the introduction of urns with ashes and bones mixed with charcoal, from time to time. Neither the cromlechs nor the kistavaens contain images of worship.

Cairns or Barrows

Cairns consist of circles of large stones, sometimes single and sometimes double, enclosing a space under which is a grave or graves, and stone-chests in which bodies and sometimes funeral urns have been deposited. They are common to England, France, Germany, Central Asia and parts of India. These cairns are to be found in Jevargi, Andola, Kodckal, Hunsgi, Malgatti, Rastapur, Maddarki, Chikkanahalli and Nellugi, all belonging to the Gulbarga district.

It seems certain that these cromlechs, kistavaens, cairns and other remains have been built by an ancient Dravidian race, which fact carries the antiquity of the district as far back as three thousand years.

Legendary History

There are a few places in this district connected with legendary history, of which two may be mentioned, *i.e.*, Sagara and Chhaya.

Sagara or the modern Shahapur takes its name from a famous king of Ikshvaku lineage. It is said that somebody had administered poison to his mother and that therefore he was born with *gara* (Sa+gara), *i.e.*, poison. He got the lost kingdom of his father and performed the horse sacrifice here. He begot 60,000 sons by his first wife, who in subsequent years were lifted to the heavens by the penance and adventurous deeds of their grandson, Bhagiratha.

Chhaya is a famous place of pilgrimage on the bank of the Krishna river. This place is associated with the name of a wife of the Sun-god. The legend says that the first wife of the Sun, Samjna, unable to bear his burning radiance, created a woman, Chhaya, resembling her own form and left for her father's house, leaving her replica at home with her husband. Chhaya lived with the Sun as his wife. The Sun was under the impression that it was his real wife. The mystery was somehow revealed afterwards and the Sun joined his original wife, leaving Chhaya-Devi. Chhaya was now helpless. After sometime, the Sun was full of remorse and said that in order to atone for the wrong which he did her, he would touch her feet every morning and " even now the first rays of the rising Sun touch the feet of her image " at this place.

Chalukyas of Badami

After the extermination of the great Satavahana dynasty in about 200 A.D., the entire region under their sway disintegrated into a number of small principalities. These principalities reigned till the middle of the sixth century A.D., when the Chalukyas came on the scene to establish a strong and unified rule in order to

bring about order amidst general confusion. During the intervening period, no single dynasty wielded power over the Deccan region. But probably the area of the present Gulbarga was held by the Vakatakas. They extended their influence over a wide area including a portion of the Bellary district. During the later part of the fifth century A.D., the Vakataka power lost its hold and finally fell between 515 and 550 A.D.

With the fall of the Satavahana empire, and the consequent disintegration, the Chalukyas of Badami undertook the supreme political task of consolidation and unification. In this mighty endeavour, they did succeed to a remarkable degree and all the credit of consolidation goes to Pulikeshin II who brought about peace and order in the troubled land. The origin of the Chalukyas is obscure in detail. Ever so many myths and legends are associated with their emergence. Recent findings in the matter, according to Sri N Lakshminarayana Rao of the Government of India Epigraphy Department, have disclosed that the Chalukyas were of local origin. There is reason to believe that the Chalukyas of Badami were indigenous and belonged to Karnataka.

Early Chalukyan rulers

It has been established that Jayasimha and Ranaraga were the earliest monarchs of the Chalukyan dynasty. Among the many who sat on the throne, the name of Pulikeshin I (535-566 A.D.) stands prominent. He was the son of Ranaraga and during his eventful reign, he fortified Badami and made it his capital city. Kirtivarman succeeded Pulikeshin I and reigned from 566 A.D. to 598 A.D. In this period, the king attacked the Nalas, Mauryas and Kadambas. At the instance of this king, a cave temple was built in Badami. Mangalesha came to power after Kirtivarman and expanded the kingdom in the north and the west. Intrigues and pulls for the capture of the throne threatened to destroy the power of the Chalukyas. Pulikeshin II succeeded Mangalesha and ruled the country with exceptional courage and determination. He was undoubtedly the most illustrious ruler of the dynasty and remained in power for 29 years. Immediately after ascending the throne, he put down all internal conflicts and then turned his attention towards his conquests. He subjugated the Kadambas, the Gangas, the Alupas, the Pallavas, the Cholas and many other ruling houses. The brilliance of his conquests, coupled with his extraordinary bravery, gave him the title of Supreme Lord. About A.D. 642, Pulikeshin II was defeated and probably killed by the Pallava king, Narasimha Varman I. Vikramaditya I ascended the Chalukyan throne after the glorious era of Pulikeshin II, and met with innumerable obstacles, in his attempts to put down internal chaos and disorder. He gave a crushing blow to the Pallavas and defeated the Cholas, the Pandyas and the Keralas. Vijayaditya was the next monarch in the Chalukyan line. This king fully restored the old power and prestige of the dynasty. Vijayaditya's eldest son Vikramaditya II was installed on the throne

and he ruled from 733 to 744 A.D. He destroyed the power of the Pandyas, Cholas, Keralas and the Kalabhras. Kirtivarman II succeeded Vikramaditya and was responsible for the end of the Badami Chalukyas. Being a weakling, he could not hold together the extensive kingdom. Most of the feudatory rulers became bold and restive. Dantidurga, a feudatory, made the final assault on Kirtivarman II. Kirtivarman had to confine himself to the southern portions of his kingdom. After continuing for a couple of years, he was finally overthrown by the Rashtrakuta king, Krishna.

Emergence of Rashtrakutas

The Rashtrakutas were of Kannada origin, as has been proved by Dr. Altekar. They professed to be descendants of the Rathikas, a clan which inhabited Western Deccan, since the times of Ashoka. It is on record that the Rashtrakutas flourished during the sixth and the seventh centuries A.D. as feudatories of the Chalukyas of Badami. The dynastic rule of the Rashtrakutas begins with their elevation to sovereignty under Dantidurga in 753.

Dantidurga's family originally belonged to Lattalura (Latur) in Osmanabad district. He ascended the throne in 753 A.D. This king was able, ambitious and sagacious and became the overlord of the Deccan in less than fifteen years His first encounters were during the campaign initiated by his feudal lord Vikramaditya II. When Vikramaditya II died in 747 A.D., Dantidurga embarked upon a bold career of conquest. He took care to see that his annexations were, as far as possible, not at the cost of the Chalukyan empire. He wiped out the Gurjara kingdom of Nandipuri (Nandod) and appointed his nephew Karkka to rule over the region. He then led an expedition into Malwa. Next, he met his opponents in eastern Madhya Pradesh and brought the area under his political influence. By A.D. 750, he had become the master of the present central and southern Gujarat and the whole of Madhya Pradesh and Berar. After becoming the undisputed master of the whole of the present Maharashtra, he died sometime before 758 A.D.

Krishna I

Krishna I came to the throne after Dantidurga. He was an uncle of Dantidurga. He soon turned his attention towards the Chalukyas. It was Krishna's might that brought the mighty Chalukyan empire to a close. After achieving this great military victory, he proceeded against the Gangas of Mysore. Many expeditions of his proved fruitful and as a consequence the whole of the Hyderabad region was included in the Rashtrakuta Empire. He also brought under his sway southern Konkan. He was not only a conqueror but was also a builder. The famous rock-cut temples of Ellora bear eloquent testimony to his devotion to art and religion. Krishna I died about A.D. 773.

Govinda II

Govinda II, the eldest son of Krishna I, succeeded to the throne in 773 A.D. He had been nominated as Yuvaraja by his father and had shown his valour by defeating Vishnu-vardhana IV of Vengi. Forgetting his duties and obligations as a king, he abandoned himself to a life of pleasure and practically left the whole administration to his younger brother Dhruva. Sensing that his brother took undue advantage in order to gain ascendancy, Govinda II removed Dhruva from the administration. Then began a series of conflicts between the reigning monarch and his brother. Govinda II refused to abdicate and put up resistance.

Dhruva

Dhruva ascended the throne defeating his brother in a conflict and assumed the titles of Nirupama Kali Vallabha, Dharavarsha and Sri Vallabha. Soon after he assumed power, he set about on a mission to punish those who helped his brother Govinda II. It was at this time that he ventured to annex the whole of Gangavadi, which he did after bloody battles. He then proceeded against the Pallava ruler, Dantivarman, and came to an agreement with him. After this, he humbled the ruler of Vengi. He held the entire Deccan and wanted to be the overlord of Northern India as well. The Gurjara-Pratihara king, Vatsaraja and Dharmapala of Bengal were fighting in the Ganga-Yamuna Doab for the possession of imperial Kanauj. Dhruva defeated both the contestants and his supremacy was so great that none could challenge him in the country.

Govinda III

Govinda III, the third son of Dhruva, succeeded his father. The new king was drawn into a number of conflicts. Marching to the south, he annexed some territory and overran Nolambavadi. In A.D. 809, there was a combined onslaught on the Rashtrakutas by the Gangas, Pallavas, Pandyas and Keralas. Govinda III defeated all of them.

Amoghavarsha I

Amoghavarsha I (814-878) succeeded his father, Govinda III. He had a long rule of 64 years. During his reign, he had to contend with the Gangas, but barring these encounters, his reign was on the whole peaceful. It is said that he wrote the great work in Kannada called *Kavirajamarga*. This is a work of prosody and even today is in constant reference. It also gives a glowing account of the Kannada country between the Godavari and the Cauvery and of the culture of the people who inhabited this region. The following is a free rendering of some lines from the book :

The region between the Cauvery and the Godavari is called the Kannada country, the most beautiful land on the surface of the earth. Apt are the people of that land in speaking as if accustomed to verse and in understanding it when spoken ; they are really ingenious ; they are skilled in the usages of poetry without

making a special study of it. Not only small children, even the dumb are able to understand words of wisdom.

Amoghavarsha's name is associated with the development of the capital city of Manyakheta. There are different theories about this. While the capital city is said to have been greatly improved by Amoghavarsha, some historians suggest that Vishnuvardhana (the eastern Chalukyan king) constructed a rampart to the city.

Amoghavarsha professed the Jaina religion. He also wrote a Sanskrit work called *Prashnottara Ratnamala*. This king was also known as Nrupatunga.

Krishna II

Krishna II, son of Amoghavarsha, succeeded to the throne. Soon after he assumed power, he had to meet a vigorous attack by the Chalukyan King, Vijayaditya of Vengi, who subdued the Nolambas and the Gangas and then attacked the Rashtrakuta dominion. Vijayaditya ravaged the whole kingdom. Krishna invaded Vengi after the death of Vijayaditya but was defeated by the new ruler Bhima. But these deficiencies in battle were made good in another direction. Krishna II marched his armies to the north and defeated the king of Malwa and reconquered Southern Gujarat. Krishna was a Jaina. It is said that Krishna II had political relations with the Cholas. One of his daughters was married to Aditya I, a Chola king. After the death of Aditya, his son Parantaka had to contend with Krishna II who sustained a crushing blow. The wars that Krishna II waged generally ended in failure.

Indra III

After a long rule of 36 years, Krishna II died in 914 A.D. He was succeeded by his grandson Indra III, whose father, Jagattunga, predeceased Krishna. Soon after Indra's accession to the throne, he declared war against the Gurjara-Pratihara Emperor, Mahipala. The capture of Kanauj, the imperial city of northern India, was a notable achievement and greatly enhanced the might of the Rashtrakuta arms. Mahipala fled and Indra sent his own Chalukya feudatory, Narasimha II, in pursuit. The war with the Vengi rulers continued in the reign of Indra also, but with no decisive success on either side. Indra III died prematurely in 922 A.D.

Amoghavarsha II

After the death of Indra III, Amoghavarsha II came to the throne. This king did not survive long and fell a prey to the foul play of his younger brother Govinda IV. Govinda was a lover of pleasure and could not maintain himself on the throne for long. Chalukya Bhima II of Vengi inflicted a number of defeats on the Rashtrakuta army and there were rebellions throughout the land. Ultimately Govinda was deposed.

Amoghavarsha III

Amoghavarsha III, an uncle of Govinda, assumed the imperial power. This king had a high reputation for exceptional character

and integrity. Soon after he ascended the throne in 936 A.D., he vanquished his enemies who were plotting to overthrow him. His reign lasted only for three years. As Amoghavarsha III was religious by temperament, he did not take any active part in the day-to-day administration. The whole administration was carried on by his able son, Krishna.

Krishna III

Krishna III succeeded to the throne on his father's death towards the end of 939 A.D. Soon after he ascended the throne, he invaded the Chola kingdom in collaboration with his brother-in-law Butuga ruling in Gangavadi. The two brothers-in-law led an expedition to the south, and captured Kanchi and Tanjore. Parantaka, the Chola king, repulsed the invaders. Krishna III marched on Rameshwaram, where he set up a pillar of victory. In A.D. 963, Krishna III led an expedition into Northern India in which Narasimha, the successor of the Ganga ruler Butuga, offered valuable assistance. Later on, he led an expedition into Malwa against the Paramara ruler Siyaka and occupied Ujjayini. Krishna succeeded in bringing Vengi effectively under his control. He was one of the ablest kings of the dynasty. He was the lord of the whole of Deccan in the full sense of the term.

Khottiga

Krishna III had no issue living and was succeeded by his younger brother, Khottiga, in 967 A.D. Khottiga died of a broken heart after his kingdom was invaded and the capital city plundered by the Paramara king, Siyaka, in 972 A.D.

Karkka II

Khottiga was succeeded by his nephew, Karkka II, son of Nirupama, and during his reign, a feudatory belonging to the Chalukya family, Taila II, declared his independence and occupied the Rashtrakuta kingdom in 973 A.D.

Brilliant period in history

The period of Rashtrakuta ascendancy in the Deccan from about 753 to 973 A.D., constitutes perhaps the most brilliant chapter in its history. No other ruling dynasty in the Deccan played such a dominant part in the history of India till the rise of the Marathas as an important power in the 18th century. No less than three of its rulers, Dhruva, Govinda III and Indra III carried their victorious arms into the heart of Northern India and by inflicting severe defeats upon its most powerful rulers, changed the course of history. Their success in the south was equally remarkable and Krishna III literally advanced as far as Rameshwaram in the course of his victorious career. All the great powers of India, the Pratiharas, the Palas of the north, the Eastern Chalukyas and the Cholas of the south were subjugated by them at one time or the other. They no doubt suffered reverses at times, but on the whole their military campaigns against powerful adversaries were repeatedly crowned with brilliant success.

The Rashtrakutas befriended the Muslims and gave them all facilities for settling in their territory. They allowed them to build mosques and to be ruled by their own governors. Whatever one might think of the political wisdom of the Rashtrakutas, their attitude was undoubtedly a manifestation of that spirit of religious tolerance which characterised India, but was rare in that age elsewhere in the world. It may be safely said that the Rashtrakutas of Manyakheta were the heirs of the Chalukyas of Vatapi in the imperial sovereignty of the Deccan.

Chalukyas of Kalyana

Taila II (973-997 A.D.) ruled for 24 years. He established himself first at Manyakheta and then changed his seat of Government to Kalyana. His fame rests on his heroic achievements. His deeds are summed up thus: "Having at the beginning extirpated many Rattas (Rashtrakutas), slain the valiant Munja, taken the head of the Panchala by the terror of his pride of arm in battle, and taken over the office of the Chalukya kingdom, King Taila rendered the whole circuit of the earth absolutely thornless for twenty-four years, beginning with the year Shrimukha". Munja, referred to in the inscription, was the King of Malwa, who, when he crossed the Godavari in his final expedition, was taken captive and executed. Taila II found in Ganga Panchaladeva, who had made himself master of the kingdom of the Ganga Marasimha II, a strong rival. However, in a battle fought between the two, Panchaladeva was defeated and killed by Bhutigadeva, governor of Kogali 500 under Taila II.

The most illustrious king among the later Chalukyas of Kalyana was Vikramaditya VI. The famous poet, Bilhana, who flourished in his court has given a glowing description of the life and achievements of this great monarch. The great jurist Vijnaneshwara lived about the same time at Kalyana. Perhaps the greatest name in the sphere of legal literature (Dharma Shastra) is that of Vijnaneshwara, who adorned the court of Vikramaditya VI. His *Mitakshara*, a commentary on Yajnavalkya's *smriti* is an important treatise on law accepted in South India. Numerous inscriptions of that time found in Mysore, Andhra and Madras States testify to the accuracy of the statements made by Bilhana about his patron. With the permission of his father (Someshvara I), Vikramaditya is said to have repeatedly attacked the Cholas and plundered Kanchi, and to have lent his assistance to the king of Malwa who came to him for help to regain his kingdom. Inscriptions of his time claim that he conquered Gujarat, Dahala, Konkana, Maru, Nepala, Barbara, Kashmir, Sind, Turushka, Abhira, Nallura, Vidarbha and Vanga, but these seem to be exaggerated statements. His dominions extended as far as Tumkur district in the south, Godavari district in the east and the river Narmada in the north. His vassals included the Hoysalas, Kadambas, Pandyas, Sautaras, Sindas, Yadavas and Kakatiyas.

In 1083 A.D., he sent an ambassador to the court of the Ceylon king, Vijayabahu.

Vikramaditya, immediately after he had firmly established himself on the throne, began a new era bearing his own name in the year 1076 A. D. This era called " Chalukya Vikrama Varsha " is cited in all his records instead of the Saka Varsha which was (and is) in vogue in the Karnataka country. Vikramaditya VI had a long and brilliant reign of over 50 years. None of his successors was as powerful as he. Consequently, about 1155 A.D., one of the feudatories of the Chalukyas, Kalachurya Bijjala, usurped the Chalukya throne and he and his descendants continued to hold it till about 1184 A.D. Subsequently, two subordinates of the Chalukyas, the Yadavas of Devagiri and the Hoysalas of Dwarasamudra, gradually grew powerful and occupied the Chalukya territories.

The rulers of the Chalukya family were great patrons of literature, art, architecture and sculpture. One of the famous styles of Indian architecture is the Chalukya style. The Vaishnava and Jaina rock-cut temples at Badami, the structural temples of Aihole, Pattadkal, Gadag, Haveri, Lakkundi and Kuruvatti and the Channakeshava temples at Gulbarga and Mannur may be cited as the examples of the Chalukyan architecture.

Sanskrit and Kannada literatures flourished to a very great extent under the Chalukya rulers. Some of the famous literary giants of Kannada, such as Pampa, Ponna, Ranna, Durgasimha and Nagachandra rose to eminence under their generous encouragement. Another well-known literary figure of the early Chalukya period was Vijaya Mahadevi or Vijjika. She is known to have composed a number of verses in Sanskrit, showing very high poetic merit. One of her verses says that she would bow only to three poets, *viz.*, Brahma, Vyasa and Valmiki, but would place her left foot on the heads of later composers. Another verse says : " Not knowing that I am dark like the blue lotus, Dandin has wrongly said that Saraswathi is all white ". She was perhaps also known by the name of Saraswathi.

Kalachuryas of Kalyana

The Kalachuryas who usurped the throne of the Chalukyas claim their descent from the Kalachuris of Central India ; they were also called Haihayas. That Bijjala, the greatest of this line, usurped the throne of the Chalukyas is evident from two inscriptions found at Harsoor and Kalgi villages of the Gulbarga district. Inter-marriages also appear to have been common between the Kalachuris and the Chalukyas, the Rashtrakutas and the later Chalukyas. Bijjala seems to have ruled from about 1155 to 1167 A.D. from Kalyana. The period, though short, is an eventful one and is of interest from having seen the great propagation of the Veerashaiva faith which has become prominent throughout the

Kannada-speaking territories. The Veerashaiva renaissance under Basaveshwara ushered in a new era in the religious and philosophic literature of Karnataka. The Vachana style of composition, the throwing open of the portals of the treasures of spiritual wisdom to the masses irrespective of caste and creed and the introduction of the Shivabhakti element in Kannada literary works were some of the important features of the renaissance in the religious and social life of Karnataka.

Bijjala had four sons, Sovideva (or Raya-Murari, Bhujabala Malla, Someshwara), Sankama Deva, Ahavamalla and Singhana. All these four succeeded to the throne, one after the other. Singhana was the last king of the dynasty and he ascended the throne in 1184 A.D. according to the Minajgi inscription in the Bijapur district. In the same year, the Western Chalukya sovereignty was restored by Someshvara IV, the son of Tailapa III. This Someshvara is believed to have ruled upto 1198 A.D. from Banavasi and other places. He could not regain the territories lost by his forefathers, with the result that the Chalukya dynasty was finally overcome by the other rising chiefs, the Hoysalas, the Yadavas and the Kakatiyas.

There were severe struggles between the Hoysalas and the Sevunas (also called Yadavas of Devagiri) for the possession of the Chalukya-Kalachurya dominions. In a final struggle, the Sevunas forced the Hoysalas to retire to the south of the Tungabhadra. The Sevunas, in course of time, became masters of all the western Deccan (including the district of Gulbarga and its neighbourhood) having their capital at Devagiri or modern Daulatabad. The struggle between the Hoysalas and Yadavas on the one hand and with the Kakatiyas of Warangal on the other hand weakened the power of the Hindu kings of the Deccan and offered an opportunity to the Muhammadan invader to conquer the whole expanse of South India.

At this time, Ala-ud-din Khilji had seized the throne of Delhi by murdering his father-in-law, Jalal-ud-din, the Sultan. Ala-ud-din sent to the south his general, Malik Kafur, who annexed portions of several Hindu kingdoms. But a considerable portion of the Yadava kingdom did not accept this new rule and Singeya Nayaka and his son, Kampili Raja, proclaimed their independence and formed the kingdom of Kampili comprising the present districts of Bellary, Raichur and Dharwar. The unchallenged march of the Muhammadan General, Malik Kafur, had been stemmed for a time by the Hindu chief, Kampili Raja and his son Kumara Rama of Kummatadurga near Hospet. Kumara Rama's struggle to save the Deccan from the second Muslim invasion ended in his own disaster, as recorded in the 'Paradara Sodara Ramana Charite' of Nanjunda. Kampili kingdom was, however, conquered at the time of Muhammad-bin-Tughlaq and its fall left no hope for the

small Hindu chiefs to assert their power in those unsettled political conditions. But, in a very short time, circumstances had shaped themselves favourably for the rise of a new Hindu power. The Hindu subjects revolted and staged a regular freedom movement. Two sons of Sangama, namely Hukka (Harihara I) and Bukka I, who had been officers under Kampili headed this movement and proclaimed themselves kings in the ancestral territory of Kampiliraya. Their kingdom was first confined to the limits of the Hoysala country and in course of time included the whole expanse of land between the three seas except the small Muhammadan States of the Deccan which had risen after the break-up of the Bahmani kingdom. The empire of Vijayanagara had a career of about 300 years, being ruled by three families, one succeeding the other—(1) Sangama dynasty followed by the Saluva 'usurpation', (2) the Tuluva family and (3) the Aravidu dynasty. The empire rose to great eminence under Devaraya II of the first dynasty, whose conquests in the Tamil and Telugu countries established and extended the influence of the empire over a wide area. This continued with rising success, until the invincible power of Krishnadevaraya was acknowledged as supreme in the whole of South India and the Deccan. The might of the Hindu power under Aliya Ramaraya was soon to be laid low by the combined forces of the four Muhammadan kingdoms of the Deccan and the power of Vijayanagara was shattered on the battle-field of Rakkasa-Tangadgi in A.D. 1565.

Bahmani Dynasty

The genesis of the Bahmani dynasty may be traced to the several insurrections that broke up the Delhi empire towards the close of the rule of Muhammad-bin-Tughlaq. The officers in the province of Daulatabad had failed to collect the revenue due to the empire. When the emperor's punishment seemed imminent, some of the rebels contrived to escape to Gulbarga under the leadership of Hasan Gangu, who styled himself Zafar Khan. Gathering for himself a large army, he went to Daulatabad, where Nasir-ud-din, who had been earlier proclaimed as king of the Deccan by the rebels, abdicated in favour of Hasan, who proclaimed himself the ruler in August 1347 A.D. and assumed the title of Sikandar-i-Sani Ala-ud-din Hasan Bahman Shah-al-Wali. The title "Bahman Shah" is mentioned in the Gulbarga mosque inscription and it is also found on the coins of the dynasty. The originator of the family was supposed to be a half-mythical figure of Persia called Bahman. But a different account is given by Ferishta who says that Ala-ud-din called himself Gangu Bahmani in memory of a Brahmin whose servant he had been. Soon after his accession at Daulatabad, Bahman Shah selected Gulbarga as his capital. He reigned for eleven years and most of his time was spent in waging wars or in negotiations, both of which were destined to extend his territory. At first, he had to meet opposition from the nobles who still professed their loyalty to the Tughlaq sovereign.

There was a local Hindu revolt under the leadership of one Pocha Reddi, who also professed loyalty to the Tughlaq cause. It was with much difficulty that Bahman Shah got the revolt quelled and Gulbarga reduced by means of catapults. Thus, "although Gulbarga had been proclaimed as the capital of the Deccan on the occasion of Bahman Shah's accession, the court had evidently remained at Daulatabad, as the possession of Gulbarga was regarded as precarious".* But by alternately using force and kindness, he overcame these nobles. He consolidated his rule in the Bijapur district also; parts of the Konkan coast road and passes leading to them were controlled by Gulbarga. Bahman Shah's kingdom had two powerful neighbours—Warangal and Vijayanagara. The proximity of these two Hindu kingdoms was the cause of the chronic warfare of the next hundred years that characterised the history of the Deccan. Kapaya Nayak of Warangal was defeated by Bahman Shah and was forced to pay tribute. In 1349 A.D., Bahman Shah attacked the territory of Vijayanagara, but there has been some controversy about the result of this campaign. Muslim accounts say that he conquered all the territory upto the Tungabhadra, but Hindu sources assert that Harihara I inflicted a decisive defeat on the Sultan. Whatever the truth of this matter may be, it is certain that Bahman Shah had become unquestioned master of an extensive territory at the time of his death. This territory extended to the sea on the west and on the east to the fortress town of Bhongir.

He adorned the capital with a number of fine buildings. He put the administration of the country on a sound basis by dividing it into four provinces called Tarafs, each under a Governor. Ahsanabad-Gulbarga along with Raichur and Mudgal formed one province. The province of Gulbarga, which included Bijapur, was considered to be the most important of all the provinces and the Governor was chosen from among the persons who commanded the confidence of the king and hence was called Malik Naib or Viceroy.

Mahmud I

Bahman Shah died in 1358 A.D. and was succeeded by his son Mahmud I, who was a sound and industrious administrator. Mahmud instituted a council of eight ministers. He took strong measures for suppression of brigandage and decentralised the administration. Gulbarga gained in importance by the splendid court maintained by Mahmud I. In the beginning of his reign, he was content with the silver throne which belonged to his father, but in 1363 A.D. he replaced this by a magnificent turquoise throne sent to him by the Ruler of Telangana. This throne was made of ebony and got its name because it was originally covered with an enamel

*H. K. Sherwani—The Bahmanis of the Deccan, p. 72.

of turquoise colour. Mahmud's successors added fresh jewels and ornaments to it till there was nothing visible except precious stones. The great mosque of Gulbarga was completed during his time. This is the only mosque in India which has no open court-yard. Mahmud continued the wars with Telangana and Vijayanagara. The King of Vijayanagara demanded the Krishna and Tunga-bhadra Doab. Mahmud consistently refused this demand, but Bukka invaded the Raichur Doab in 1362 A.D. Mahmud had to concede the Vijayanagara demands. His campaign in Telangana lasted for about two years and concluded with a treaty fixing Golconda as the boundary between the Bahmani Kingdom and Telangana. After this campaign, there was a period of peace and prosperity ; Mahmud reorganised his artillery on efficient lines and began to use it in fights against the enemy.

Mahmud II

In 1375 A.D., Mahmud was succeeded by his son, Mujahid, who reigned only for a period of three years. The chief event of his reign was the campaign against Vijayanagara. While returning from this campaign, he was murdered by one Daud Khan who made himself king in 1378 A.D. Within a month of his accession, he was assassinated by Mujahid's partisans and Mahmud II, grandson of Bahman Shah, was proclaimed king. Mahmud II was a very cultured person and attracted a number of men of piety and erudition to his kingdom. When his kingdom was visited by a famine, he made efficient arrangements for the transport of foodgrains from Gujarat and Malwa, though it is sad to observe that his relief measures were confined only to his Muslim subjects. He died in 1397 A. D. and was succeeded by his elder son, Ghiyas-ud-din, who was a self-centred and indiscreet young man of seventeen. Within two months, he was dethroned by an unscrupulous Turkish adventurer called Tughalchin, who raised to the throne Ghiyas-ud-din's half-brother, Shams-ud-din Daud, and made himself regent of the kingdom. The sons-in-law of Mahmud I and a grandson of Bahman Shah now stepped into the picture and tried to redeem the royal line from being dominated by a foreign adventurer. They succeeded in over-powering Tughalchin and the late king's cousin, Firuz, ascended the throne as Sultan Taj-ud-din Firuz Shah in November 1397 A.D. Ghiyas-ud-din who had been deposed and blinded by Tughalchin was brought to Gulbarga and Tughalchin was produced before him and slain by him.

Firuz Shah

Firuz had an eventful reign of twenty-five years. He was a man of vigour and had an alert mind ; he carried out three campaigns against Vijayanagara in 1399, 1407 and 1417 A.D., but it cannot be said with certainty whether he was successful in these campaigns. Firuz was an enlightened ruler and gathered around him philosophers, poets and historians. He constructed the new city of Firuzabad on the Bhima river and occasionally used it as his capital. He developed two principal ports which attracted ships from various countries. He was an accomplished linguist and

calligrapher. He made his brother Ahmad his chief minister and regulated the administration in an efficient manner. Towards the end of his reign, he was troubled by both Vijayanagara and Telangana; added to this, was the rift between him and the famous saint Khwaja Syed Mahmud Gesu Daraz, also called Bande Nawaz Gesu Daraz who declared that the Sultan's brother Ahmad would be the next ruler instead of Hasan, the son of Firuz Eventually, it did happen that Ahmad besieged the capital and ascended the throne at Gulbarga in September 1422 A.D. Firuz died within a few days.

Ahmad Shah

Ahmad Shah conferred rich endowments on the saint who had prophesied his accession to the throne and also rewarded his other friends with offices and other positions of power. It was during his reign that the Egyptian grammarian, Umar-al-Makhzumi-a'd-Damamini, visited Gulbarga, where he copied out his Arabic grammar. The king encouraged the influx of learned men, poets and statesmen from abroad. Ahmad was a pious and God-fearing person. Immediately after his accession, he campaigned against Vijayanagara to avenge the defeats of the previous reigns. A battle was fought on the banks of the Tungabhadra and was followed by great devastation of the Vijayanagara country. Ahmad next led a raid into Gondwana and entered into an alliance with Khandesh. He stayed in Bidar for some time and was so struck by its situation and climate that he decided to build a new city there called Ahmadabad-Bidar. This became the new capital of the Bahmani rulers.

Ala-ud-din II

Ahmad was succeeded in 1436 A.D. by his son, Ala-ud-din II, who surrounded himself with a number of foreigners; the mutual jealousies between the Deccanis and the foreigners were a source of constant trouble during his reign. In 1453 A.D., Ala-ud-din II was confined to his palace with an injury in the leg and this resulted in rumours being spread that he was dead. The Governor of Telangana rebelled and invited the king of Malwa to invade Berar. Ala-ud-din took the field in person, and forced the king of Malwa to retire. The Governor of Telangana was defeated and captured by Mahmud Gawan who was then rising to power. Ala-ud-din II died in 1458 A.D. He built a big hospital at Bidar. He also built a number of mosques with the material acquired from the Hindu temples that he destroyed.

Humayun

He was succeeded by his eldest son, Humayun, who had been known for his cruelty; his savagery earned for him the title of tyrant. About this time, the ruling Muslim aristocracy had split itself into two rival groups, the Deccanis and the 'Paradesis'. The Deccanis were domiciled Muslims and they looked upon their land as their particular preserve and viewed with suspicion every foreigner entering the Deccan as a future rival and a competitor for position at court. The 'Paradesis' were not natives of the

Deccan. They came to settle down here, some at the invitation of the Bahmani Sultans and others of their own accord. These were mainly Arabs, Persians and Turks. Most of them, who came as traders, settled down and took part in the politics of the country. Some of the Sultans showed a particular preference to these foreigners, which created in the minds of the Deccanis a feeling of grievance. The majority of the foreigners were Shias while most of the Deccanis were Sunnis. Humayun also favoured the foreigners and he made Mahmud Gawan, the Governor of Bijapur Though the Deccanis were not altogether excluded from office, they harboured a feeling of resentment. There were two rebellions, both of which were suppressed with unexampled ferocity. The Sultan perpetrated deeds of great violence and, when he died in 1461 A.D., his subjects heaved a sigh of relief. It is said that he was assassinated while asleep.

Nizam Shah and Mahmud III

Humayun's son, Nizam Shah, was only eight years old and his mother managed the affairs of the State with the help of Khwaja Jahan and Mahmud Gawan. During this time, the Hindu ruler of Telangana as also Mahmud Khilji of Malwa invaded his kingdom. The former was turned back, but the invasion of Mahmud posed a serious danger. The Bahmani forces had to sustain a defeat and the capital had to stand a siege. Ultimately, the ruler of Gujarat came to the help of the Bahmani kingdom and the combined forces were successful in compelling the Malwa army to retreat. The young Sultan died suddenly in July 1463 A.D. and was succeeded by his younger brother, Mahmud III, then nine years old. The Regency Council carried on the Government during the king's minority, as it had in the previous reign. Differences soon arose between Khwaja Jahan and Mahmud Gawan. The queen-mother sided with Mahmud Gawan, who had taken great care to educate the king on right lines. He was appointed Vakil-ul-Sultanat or Prime Minister and remained in supreme authority till his execution in 1481 A.D. Mahmud Gawan was an able administrator and by fighting successfully against Orissa and Vijayanagara, he enlarged the boundaries of the kingdom from Orissa to Goa. He brought under the Bahmani sway the whole of northern Karnataka. The Sultan himself showed a great military leadership in his campaigns which earned for him the title of 'Lashkari'. The new conquests enriched the resources of the kingdom. Nikitin, the Russian traveller, who visited Bidar in 1470 A.D. described it as "the chief town of the whole of Mohammedan Hindustan".

Mahmud Gawan's Execution

The Bahmani kingdom now extended from sea to sea; of the four provinces, two were held by Mahmud Gawan and Yusuf Adil Khan, both foreigners and the two others, Telangana and Berar, by Malik Hasan Nizam-ul-Mulk and Fathullah Imad-ul-Mulk. The leader of the foreigners was Yusuf, who gathered around himself many foreigners. In 1472 A.D., the Rajas of

Belgaum and Bankapur tried to recover Goa for the Hindu empire. Mahmud III and Mahmud Gawan marched against Bankapur, which surrendered and its territory was annexed and given to Mahmud Gawan's charge. Soon after, the queen mother, one of the few remarkable women that had appeared in the ruling dynasties of mediaeval India and whose advice was often sought by her son, died. She had been a steady supporter of Mahmud Gawan, who felt her loss perhaps much more keenly than even her son did. Mahmud Gawan now spent over three years in Telangana and completed its subjugation. The province which had become very big was divided into two, with capitals at Rajamahendry and Warangal. This was a part of the scheme of general reform of administration planned by Mahmud Gawan. Shortly thereafter, Mahmud Gawan divided the vastly over-grown tarafs into eight, under separate Governors. The power of the tarafdars was also curtailed. Mahmud Gawan also improved the pattern of revenue administration by organising a proper survey and assessment. These reforms made him unpopular with the Deccanis. Matters came to a head in 1481 A.D. when the Deccani party contrived to get Mahmud Gawan's seal affixed to a forged letter purporting to invite the king of Orissa to invade the kingdom. This letter was placed in the Sultan's hand. Mahmud Gawan was thus falsely accused and he was put to death by the Sultan's order. The death of Mahmud Gawan was a grievous blow to the Bahmani power, as he alone was able to control the rivalries and disaffection of the ambitious nobles of the court. He might have healed the feud between the two parties. This great crime was the immediate cause of dissolution of the Bahmani kingdom. The 'Paradesis' refused to stay in the capital and even some responsible persons of the Deccani party openly disapproved the action of the conspirators and joined the camp of Yusuf Adil Khan. There was also a plan to assassinate Yusuf Adil Khan, but he was alerted in time so that he could retire to Bijapur.

Taking advantage of the continued dissensions and struggle between different sections of the nobility of the Bahmani kingdom, the Bijapur forces captured Gulbarga and drove away its Governor. The forces of disintegration were now in full swing. Mahmud Shah was succeeded by four kings, who were kings only in name. The last king was Kalimullah and after him, the Bahmani dynasty came to an end, making way for the five independent Sultanates of the Deccan.

Bahmani Administration

The Bahmani administrative system was modelled on the Islamic pattern. The king was the supreme power. In theory, his authority was unlimited, but in practice he depended on the advice of his ministers in deciding questions of State policy. The chief minister was called 'Vakil-ul-Sultanat'. All orders issued by the king passed through him and bore his seal. The minister

for finance was called 'Amir-e-Jumla'. The external affairs minister was called 'Wazir-e-Ashraf'. Ala-ud-din Bahman Shah divided his kingdom into four divisions called Tarafs and each division was under a Tarafdar. During the early days of the Bahmani rule, these Tarafdars were held in check by the strong personality of the king who spent a major portion of his time in touring the various divisions and in supervising the administration of his officers. Mahmud Gawan re-divided the kingdom into eight Sar-lashkarships in order to control the power of the Tarafdars. Usually, one and sometimes more of these Tarafdars were also ministers at the Bahmani court. Mahmud Gawan was the Vakil-ul-Sultanat and also Tarafdar of Bijapur division. The sub-division of a taraf was known as sircar, which in its turn was divided into paraganas. A paragana consisted of a certain number of villages.

As pointed out by K. A. Nilakanta Sastri, the Bahmani rule was by no means an attractive chapter in the history of the Deccan. Several of the Sultans of the line were drunkards. Faction and strife characterised court life and sometimes led to terrible blunders like the execution of Mahmud Gawan. Some of the kings were bigots who did not have sympathy for their subjects who were mostly Hindus. The army often sucked the country dry and the people were helpless. The wars with the neighbouring States were marked by sickening horrors.

When the capital of the Bahmani kingdom was shifted to Bidar, Gulbarga lost its importance and remained only a provincial centre. When Yusuf Adil Shah became the ruler of Bijapur, Gulbarga came into his possession and remained with the Adil Shahi kings until the Mughal conquest of the Deccan. At this stage, it would be of interest to know that the heroic exploits of Krishnadevaraya of Vijayanagara also included a campaign against Bijapur in 1523. Enraged at the "machinations of one Asad Khan Lari, a wily courtier of Ismail Shah who had been sent to Vijayanagar to conclude a treaty"*, Krishnadevaraya invaded Bijapur territory and captured Gulbarga and razed its fortress to the ground. He also liberated the three Bahmani princes (sons of Mahmud II Bahmani) who had been imprisoned in the fort of Gulbarga by Ismail Adil Khan, son of Yusuf Adil Khan. There are Persian inscriptions of Adil Shah in Gulbarga which bear testimony to the fact that after the battle of Rakkasa-Tangadgi, Ali Adil Shah effected the repairs of forts with the help of the booty captured from Vijayanagara.

Mughals

The Mughal emperors from the time of Jahangir and Shah Jahan had an eye on the Deccan States. With a view to subjugating the whole of the Deccan, the Mughal armies advancing southwards first absorbed Berar and then Ahmadnagar. The

* A History of South India by K. A. Nilakanta Sastri, p. 271.

kingdoms of Golconda and Bijapur were then outside their clutches. When Aurangzeeb was appointed Governor of the Deccan he marched as far as Gulbarga and laid siege on Bijapur taking advantage of the death of its ruler Muhammad Adil Shah in November 1656 and the consequent crowning of Ali Adil Shah II, a youth of 18 years and the only son of the late ruler. After capturing Bidar in March 1657, Aurangzeb sent a large force under Mahabat Khan to ravage the Bijapur territory upto Kalyana and Gulbarga. Though the Bijapur army put up a very obstinate fight, the heavily armed Mughal army was successful in plundering Bijapur and laying its villages waste upto Gulbarga and also capturing the fort of Kalyana.

After the fall of Kalyana, the king of Bijapur opened negotiations for peace with Shah Jahan. Thereupon, the Emperor ordered Aurangzeb to return to Bidar with his army. Shortly afterwards, Shah Jahan fell ill and Aurangzeb had to retreat from Kalyana and hasten back to Delhi.

Thus, the storm of Mughal invasion having blown over temporarily, the Bijapur State next showed a revival of power for some time under Ali Adil Shah II. But, with his death in 1672 and the consequent crowning of his son, Sikandar, a boy of four, the glory of Bijapur started declining. The incapacity of the selfish regents of the infant ruler threw the monarchy into confusion and disturbances broke out on all sides. This was taken advantage of by Bahadur Khan, the Mughal Emperor's Viceroy in the Deccan, who marched with a huge force and conquered some districts of Bijapur including Gulbarga in July 1677.

As soon as Aurangzeb assumed the reins of administration after a fratricidal war, he settled all matters concerning North India and turned his mind towards the Deccan. During the latter half of his rule, he himself came to the Deccan and spent more than twenty years here. At this time, the supremacy of Bijapur kingdom had already declined owing to the risings of Shivaji and other factors.

Bedar Rajas

Gulbarga district was now under the sway of the Bedar Rajas. The Bedars were once serving under the Vijayanagara rulers and their chiefs became vassals under Bijapur after the fall of the Vijayanagara kingdom. The Bedars were a virile and hardy people and were known for their valour and love of freedom. They had their earliest capital at Sagar and then at Wagingeri. When this was lost to the Mughals, they shifted their capital to Shorapur (Surapura), lying in the fork between the Krishna and the Bhima. They were defending Bijapur against the attack of the Mughal Emperor. After the fall of Bijapur, they became semi-independent and became a menace to the Mughal army. Aurangzeb had a very hard time in quelling their attacks. Every time, the

Bedars used to sally forth and attack the Mughal army with deadly accuracy causing heavy casualties in the Mughal camp. A prolonged struggle followed between the Mughals and the Bedar Rajas. In the end, however, the latter had to yield to the Mughals. But they succeeded in getting the sanads from the Mughal court for all the privileges that they were enjoying during the period of the Bijapur Kings. Thus, though they became subservient to the Mughals, they retained sway over the Gulbarga district and collected ten per cent of the revenue.

Asaf Jahi Dynasty

The Asaf Jahi dynasty was founded by Nizam-ul-Mulk Asaf Jah, a distinguished general of Aurangzeb. After a long service in the Delhi Empire, distinguished alike in war and in political sagacity, he was appointed Subedar or Viceroy of the Deccan in 1713 A.D. In 1719 A.D., he was sent to Malwa as its Subedar. But the Sayyid brothers who were influential at the court in Delhi, appointed Sayyid Dilawar as Subedar of Malwa. At the same time, the Subedar of the Deccan was instructed to move northwards in order to attack Nizam-ul-Mulk. The Nizam first defeated Dilawar at the battle of Ratanpur in 1720 A.D. Then he defeated the Deccan Subedar at Bijapur. By this time the Sayyid brothers had fallen from grace. Nizam-ul-Mulk was appointed Wazir at Delhi. Growing weary of the intrigues at court, he resigned his post and returned to the Deccan, reaching Aurangabad in July 1724 A.D. The Emperor now appointed Mubariz Khan as the Viceroy of all the areas of the Mughal Deccan. The Nizam had to defeat this new rival in October 1724 A.D., before he could take possession of Hyderabad and settle down as the master of the Deccan. He began to function virtually as an independent ruler from now on. He was given the title of Asaf Jah. He had little difficulty in asserting his position against the degenerate and weak occupants of the throne of Delhi. But he had to repel the inroads of the Marathas who were harassing the western portion of his newly acquired territory. At the time of his death in 1748 A.D., he was fairly well-established in the Deccan. However, the Peshwas were successful in extracting *chouth* from him. In this way, Gulbarga district was under three masters—the Nizam of whose dominions it formed a part, the Peshwas to whom it had to pay *chouth* and thirdly, the Rajas of Surapura to whom it was obliged to pay the *dahija* or ten per cent of the revenue.

After Asaf Jah's death in 1748 A.D., there was a contest for succession between his second son, Nasir Jung and his sister's son, Muzaffar Jung. This dispute between the uncle and the nephew brought the English and French on to the scene. Dupleix came to the help of Muzaffar Jung and the English allied themselves with Nasir Jung, who marched to the south in 1750 A.D. and besieged the fort of Ginji with the aid of the English. Very soon, Muzaffar Jung surrendered to his uncle who, however, had to march again

to Ginji which was now occupied by a French contingent. He died in the course of fighting. Muzaffar Jung was proclaimed Nizam. After his death in 1751 A.D., Salabat Jung, a brother of Nasir Jung, was proclaimed Nizam. The new Nizam who owed his elevation to D'Bussy, the French general, depended entirely upon the Frenchman who dominated Hyderabad politics at this time. War broke out between France and England in Europe and their representatives in India also started hostilities. Meanwhile, Nizam Ali, another brother of Nasir Jung, rebelled and the Nizam who could not do anything without external help, concluded an important treaty with the English in May 1759 A.D. This treaty marked the end of French influence in Hyderabad and the beginning of English influence. The Nizam was obliged to make Nizam Ali his Prime Minister and the latter ultimately deposed him and became the Nizam. During the rule of this Nizam, the English gained more and more power in Hyderabad State. In 1766 A.D., the Northern Circars were ceded to the British on condition that the Nizam was to be furnished with a subsidiary force in times of war and should receive six lakhs of rupees annually when no troops were required. The Nizam also promised to assist the British with his troops. In 1790 A.D., an offensive and defensive alliance against Tippu Sultan was concluded between the Nizam, the Marathas and the British. On the fall of Srirangapatna in 1799 A.D., the Nizam participated in the Treaty of Mysore that divided the territory and his share was increased because the Peshwa withdrew from that treaty. In 1800 A.D., a fresh treaty was concluded by which the subsidiary troops were augmented by two battalions of infantry and one regiment of cavalry for the payment of which the Nizam ceded the districts of Cuddapah, Kurnool, Anantapur and Bellary. Nizam Ali died in 1803 and was succeeded by his son, Sikandar Jah. During the rule of this Nizam, the English became masters of large tracts of territory in the Deccan and Hyderabad State was completely surrounded by the territories of the Company. Sikandar Jah was a pleasure-loving person and several unscrupulous persons took advantage of the situation and fully exploited it. Raja Chandulal was the Prime Minister of the State for nearly thirty years, and it cannot be said that this period was marked by good government for the State. In 1820 A.D., Sikandar Jah died and was succeeded by his son, Nasir-ud-dowla, who is said to have been a humane and broad-minded ruler. In 1853 A.D., Salar Jung I became the Prime Minister of the State. In the same year, a fresh treaty was concluded with the British. The pay of the contingent troops had fallen into arrears and the districts of Berar and Osmanabad and the Raichur Doab yielding a gross revenue of fifty lakhs of rupees a year were ceded to the British. In return, the British agreed to maintain an auxiliary force and the Nizam was released from the unlimited obligation of service in times of war. The Nizam died in 1857 A.D. On his death-bed, he is said to have told his son, Afzul-ud-dowla, that as the British were always friendly with the

Nizam, he should continue to be faithful to the British. Afzul-ud-dowla followed his father's advice and all through the troubled days of 1857 A.D., he and his minister, Sir Salar Jung, stood by the British.

Surapura State

At this stage, it would be of interest to recount the heroic efforts made by Venkatappa Naik, the Bedar Chief of Surapura to save his State from the designs of the British and the Nizam to annex it. After the death of his father in 1841, Venkatappa Naik succeeded him to the throne of Surapura. As he was still a minor at that time, the British took advantage of it and appointed Meadows Taylor as Political Agent to the State with the 'additional responsibility' of looking after the young man's education and training. After attaining majority, Venkatappa Naik took over the administration of the State and improved it considerably. He was known for his valour and administrative ability.

But, in the meantime, Dalhousie, the British Governor-General, proposed to Venkatappa Naik that he should entertain a British Officer to advise him in matters of State, involving an annual expenditure of Rs. 20,000. The Raja refused to accept the proposal. He disliked this intervention of the British in the affairs of his State. The policy of the British Government and especially of Dalhousie, of eliminating the old princely States, had already sown the seeds of discontent and resentment among Indians. Venkatappa Naik, who was also aware of this fact, decided to stake his all for the defence and freedom of his land. He began to strengthen his army by enlisting also Arabs, Rohillas and others.

Bedars' Heroic Struggle

But the British Government, which had already set a watchful eye on his activities, was aware of these preparations. It charged him of misrule in his own State and of contemplating a rebellion against the British and conducted an enquiry in this regard. Venkatappa Naik refuted the charges levelled against him. At this time, Salar Jung of Hyderabad also lodged a complaint against Venkatappa Naik with the British Resident at Hyderabad stating that the agents of the Bedar chief were actively engaged in enlisting Arabs and Rohillas for the Surapura army. The British, who feared that there would be an insurrection by the formidable Bedars under the leadership of Venkatappa Naik, made thorough preparations and marched the British troops into Surapura. The Bedars put up a stubborn fight in which Captain Newberry, the British Army Officer who led the attack was killed. The British brought in reinforcements and attacked the fort again. Though the Bedars gave a valiant fight, the treachery of a close confidant of Venkatappa Naik, enabled the British troops to capture the fort.

Venkatappa Naik, who realised that all was lost, left Surapura and proceeded to Hyderabad where he expected to gather Arab and Rohilla mercenaries for an attempt to regain his kingdom. But his expectations were not fulfilled. A few followers who had accompanied him also left him and he was caught and handed over to Salar Jung, who, in turn, made him over to the British. A trial was conducted and he was sentenced to transportation for life, which was reduced to four years' imprisonment by the Viceroy. Besides, the Raja was given hopes of restitution of his kingdom, if he showed evidence of improved relations with the British. But he was not destined to survive the disgrace of capture and imprisonment. It is said that he shot himself dead with the revolver of the officer who was taking him to the place of imprisonment. Thus ended the valiant fight of Surapura against alien interference in its affairs and the British made over the principality to the Nizam.

In 1858 A.D., the Nizam received thanks from the British Government for his act of friendship and a new treaty was signed in 1860 A.D. by which Osmanabad and the Raichur Doab were restored to the Nizam. In 1869 A. D., Afzul-ud-dowla was succeeded by his son, Mir Mahboob Ali Khan, who was then only three years old. Sir Salar Jung I and Nawab Shams-ul-umra were made co-regents and the advice of the British Resident was taken in all matters. The regency continued until 1884 A. D. During the reign of Mahboob Ali Khan, many improvements were made. In 1893 A. D., the cabinet and the legislative council were formed and for the first time in the annals of Hyderabad, non-officials were also allowed a voice in the work of administration. Mahboob Ali Khan died in 1911 A.D. and was succeeded by Mir Osman Ali Khan, the last ruler of the dynasty. After the resignation in 1914 A. D. of the Prime Minister, Salar Jung III, the Nizam took the reins of Government in his own hands and dealt with the heads of various departments without any intermediary. During the first World War, he expressed the traditional loyalty of his house to the British Government by rendering it assistance in all forms. After 1911 A.D., Hyderabad made some progress and the public services of the State were completely Indianised.

Police Action

India's independence in August 1947 was closely followed by the integration of the Indian States. But the Nizam refused to fall in line with the other States. This shocked the people of Hyderabad State, who started an agitation for the accession of the State to the Indian Union. This in the beginning was non-violent, but when the National flag was declared to be foreign and the arrested leaders were accorded bad treatment in the prisons, it took a violent turn. Meanwhile, there arose an injurious militant organisation in the State called the Razakar organisation. This was followed by a year of terror throughout the State. Appeals of

several responsible persons to the Nizam to take measures to disband the Razakar organisation fell on deaf ears. The Razakars even committed aggression against the Indian Union. The Government of India could no longer sit silent. It tried negotiations, but this proved fruitless. By the beginning of the year 1948, it became clear that the Nizam was actually on the war path and from the middle of the year, the Government of India began taking defensive steps. The Nizam appealed to the United Nations Organisation but found no support there. At last, on the 13th September 1948, the Government of India started its police action against Hyderabad. The Union forces pierced Hyderabad State at several points. The Nizam ordered a cease-fire on the 17th and permitted the free entry of Indian forces into the State. On the 18th September, Hyderabad was reborn. This meant practically the end of the Asaf Jahi rule in Hyderabad. The Nizam was continued as the Rajapramukh of the State upto the 1st November 1956, on which day the re-organisation of States automatically brought about its dis-integration. The State was divided into its three linguistic components, and Gulbarga district, which was one of the three Kannada-speaking districts of the State, formed part of the new Mysore State.

Freedom Struggle

Until recently, it was the general belief that Hyderabad and its rulers were the bulwark of strength to the British empire and that the first war of Indian independence failed because of the great help rendered to the English by the late Sir Salar Jung representing Hyderabad Government. But now it has become clear that it was not the people of the State, but the ruler alone that formed the main source of strength to the British. This portion of the Deccan, including Gulbarga district, was not aloof from the flames of the freedom struggle that were raging elsewhere in the country in the 19th century. There is enough evidence to show that there were many patriots, both among the commoners and the zamindars, who thought and acted wholly in consonance with the spirit of the freedom struggle. Gulbarga district had also its own share in this struggle. Public opinion in the State, including Gulbarga district, was considerably strong against British domination in Hyderabad. Due to the extravagant financial commitments on account of the stationing of the contingent forces and the acts of unscrupulous men like Chandulal, mal-administration had set in and this gave rise to a number of disturbances in the State. The British Residents were very prompt in quelling these disturbances. When it came to the question of introducing reforms in the administration, they applied the policy of non-interference. Thus, the aspirations of the people and their opposition to the contingent forces assumed the form of a freedom struggle. There were no pronounced radical movements in this part during the early period. However, the area was being mainly influenced by events taking place in the neighbouring regions. With the improvement in the administration of the State

as a result of the efforts of Salar Jung I, **Hyderabad attracted a** *number of talented people from outside also.* **With the spread of** *education, an enlightened middle class came into existence.* **The** *press, both English and Urdu,* **made its appearance about this** *time. A number of enlightened persons like* **Aghornath Chattopadhyaya,** *Mulla Abdul Qayum* **and Ramachandra Pillay were** *attracted to Hyderabad.* **They helped in bringing about a public awakening throughout the State.**

The Government of the Hyderabad State looked upon the emergence of the Congress with considerable apprehension, because the spread of liberal and nationalistic ideals would expose the feudal nature of the Hyderabad administration. But after the Belgaum Congress, held in the year 1924 under the presidentship of Mahatma Gandhi, the desire of the people of the Hyderabad-Karnatak area to fight for the country's freedom was intensified. The non-co-operation struggle which began in 1930, had also its effect on the people. The Government banned the Hyderabad State Congress in September 1938. The earnest attempts of the Congress leaders at bringing the Hyderabad Government to reason and to the acceptance of the modest demands of the Congress having ended in failure, the Congress took recourse to satyagraha. The Arya Samajists also started an agitation demanding equal religious rights. The Congress launched the 'Quit India' movement in 1942 and a large number of nationlists suffered a great deal in the cause of freedom. The Hyderabad State Congress under the able presidentship of Swami Ramananda Thirtha played a very important part in the struggle and also in bringing about the reorganisation of the State.

As a result of the relentless struggle of the Indian National Congress, based on truth and non-violence, India attained independence on 15th August 1947. But this freedom was only partial, for nearly a third of the country consisting of 600 and odd princely States remained outside the pale of free India. Thanks to the iron will and statesmanship of Sardar Vallabhbhai Patel, these States were integrated with the Indian Union. But Hyderabad State alone stood aside for some time and it required valiant struggle of the people of the State and determined action of the Government of India to make it fall in line with the other States.

Even with the accession of Hyderabad to the Indian Union, the problems of the people of the Hyderabad-Karnatak did not find solution. The movement for the unification of the scattered Kannada-speaking areas and the formation of a United Karnataka gained momentum in tune with the agitation for the formation of linguistic States in the country. The people of Hyderabad-Karnatak naturally desired to become a part and parcel of a unified Kannada State. The Hyderabad-Karnatak Parishat, a

cultural organisation of the Kannadigas of the area, played a notable part in this regard.

With the enactment of the States' Reorganisation Act in 1956, the long-cherished and ardent desire of the people of the Hyderabad-Karnatak region was fulfilled and the three Kannada-speaking districts of Gulbarga, Raichur and Bidar formed part of the new Mysore State with effect from 1st November 1956.

Mutual cultural influence

It is interesting to note that there has been, through the ages, a kind of inter-play of Muslim and Hindu cultures in Gulbarga, each influencing the other and enriching it. The Muslim rule over the centuries had its influence on the habits and customs of the people who were mostly Hindus. Quite a number of Muslims themselves were descendants of Hindu converts. Even the Muslims who claimed descent from foreign immigrants lived in closeness with the Hindus for generations. It was inevitable therefore that there was a reciprocal influence. Many social practices of the Muslims such as marriages were closely influenced by the Hindu society. Even the caste distinctions characterising Hindu society spread to the Muslim aristocracy. In matters of dress, food, language, music, art and architecture, there was considerable mutual influence. Even in religious matters, there was this mutual influence perceptible, as is indicated by Sufism on the one hand and the doctrines of the medieval Hindu saints on the other. The Muslim saints were revered by the Hindus and the Hindu saints and ascetics were held in high respect by the Mullims. In the field of scholarship and literature, Muslim scholars studied Hindu philosophy and sciences such as Yoga, Vedanta, medicine, astrology, arithmetic and chemistry. Some Muslim rulers were great patrons of Hindu scholars and a few Muslim scholars wrote in the Indian language. Gulbarga played a notable role in the development of what is known as Deccani Hindi. A few Hindus wrote in the Persian language. This would lead us to conclude that, in so far as scholarship in the sciences and humanities was concerned, there was great inter-play between the two systems. However, it should be noted that this mutual influence touched mainly the external elements of life. The Hindus continued to retain their habits of social exclusiveness and the Muslims their religious zeal.

Influence of the Muhammadan Sufis

Sufism may, in a way, be compared to the *Bhakti* cult prevalent in Hinduism. The Muslim mystics were men of deep religious feelings ; they led ascetic lives and laid great stress on the practice of self-discipline as preparing the human being for the intuitive knowledge of God. This doctrine was not only widely propagated in the Islamic world outside the country but was also further developed on Indian soil. Nizam-ud-din Auliya was one of the greatest Sufis in the country. He laid emphasis on the element of faith as a means of the realisation of God. It has been suggested by some that the views, beliefs and practices of the Sufi

sect of Islam had some influence on Hinduism in the Deccan. Among the similarities, may be mentioned the physical exercises like the restraining of the breath, the service to the Guru or teacher, the recitation of sacred words and the belief in the union with the Supreme Being through *Bhakti*. But these similarities ceased to be important in so far as the orthodox sections of the Muslims and the Hindus were concerned. The moderate wings of the two religions might perhaps have provided a common meeting ground. Whatever might have been the benefits from the moral, spiritual and philosophical points of view, their historical importance was limited by the fact that the number of Indians directly affected by them could not have been very large.

Jainism

Of the several theories regarding the advent of Jainism in South India, the Bhadrabahu theory seems to be the popularly accepted one. Bhadrabahu was a disciple of Mahavira. He led a great migration to the south and was thus responsible for the spread of Jainism in Karnataka. The Jaina religion seems to have enjoyed considerable patronage at the hands of the Chalukya rulers who were quite tolerant towards other religions also. Jainism rose to predominance during the time of the Rashtrakutas. A good many literary works were composed during the Rashtrakuta period. The *Harivamsa* of the Digambara Jainas is said to have been composed by Jinasena during the reign of Govinda II. Amoghavarsha I was one of the greatest patrons of the Digambara Jainas. Besides *Kavirajamarga* which is the earliest known Kannada work on rhetoric, the authorship of *Prashnottara Ratnamalika*, a book on morality written in Sanskrit, has also been assigned to him. The last verse of this work says that Amoghavarsha voluntarily abdicated the throne. This work is said to have been translated into the Tibetan language also, which shows that his reputation had spread beyond the confines of the country. Jainism, during the period of the Western Chalukya revival, ceased to be the predominant faith that it was once. The faith suffered a set-back during the later period. The Jaina temples found in Malkhed, Seram, Hunsi-Hadagalli and several other places in the Gulbarga district bear testimony to the fact that the whole of the district was under the influence of the Jaina faith once upon a time.

Shaivism

Vikramaditya VI was probably professing the Jaina faith in his early years. In later life, he seems to have been a Shaivite. An inscription at Kalhattipura in Chickmagalur district refers to Nijarudrapada as his guru. Another inscription at Chinnatumbalam in Bellary district mentions the Rajaguru, Someshvara Pandita. One of his queens caused certain grants to be made to the God Keshavadeva at the Agrahara of Rudravadi in the Gulbarga district. When Vikramaditya VI was ruling at Kalyana, the Shaiva creed received a further impetus. The Kalamukha ascetics gained more and more royal favour and the gifts of land and villages

made to them increased their popularity. But it must be said that during Vikramaditya's time there was catholicity in religious outlook. Jainism, Shaivism, Vaishnavism and even Buddhism which still claimed a few votaries, received support at his hands, and several inscriptions of his reign testify to this fact. We have a comprehensive picture of religious catholicity obtaining in those days in an inscription of Belagave, the capital of Banavasi, which was adorned by Vikramaditya VI for some time.

The Buddhists seem to have also held their place in that city equally with the Jainas, Shaivas and Vaishnavas. The place was a great centre for religious and philosophical training. The Vedantic schools had come into prominence, the Kalamukha ascetics were spreading the tenets of the Pashupata faith and the Vaishnavite faith was showing signs of gaining ground. Kalyana was a ciy of great beauty at the time of Vikramaditya, who was a liberal patron of the arts and learning.

Vaishnavism

During this period, the number of Vaishnava temples constructed was not very great. But this does not mean that the Vaishnava cult was totally absent. Since it was a period of further development of Shaivism, we find a number of Shaiva temples being constructed. But some of the kings did construct Vaishnava temples. The Channakeshava temple at Gulbarga, the beautiful idol of Channakeshavaswami at Pattasavalgi in Aland taluk and the Channakeshava temple at Mannur may be said to be the remnants of the constructive activity of the Chalukyan kings of Kalyana. The Vaishnava cult got a definite fillip during the reign of the Yadava kings. There was a perceptible increase in the devotion to Vishnu or Vitthal. The districts of Gulbarga and Raichur were included in the Devagiri kingdom.

Architecture

Gulbarga has a large number of architectural monuments of the Bahmani Sultanate, though monuments of the earlier dynasties are not found extensively. A temple in the precincts of the Gulbarga Fort and a ruined site at Nagai in the Chittapur taluk and some Jaina temples at Malkhed and Seram are said to represent Chalukyan architecture.

A significant feature of several of the Bahmani monuments at Gulbarga is that though the Sultanate itself was founded as a challenge to the Tughlaq power, they are built on the same orthodox Tughlaq pattern with sloping walls and flat domes. Easily the most important of the monuments is the big covered mosque, the Jami Mosque, constructed during the reign of the second Sultan of the Bahmani dynasty. This big mosque, which is 216 feet by 176 feet, is unlike any other mosque in India, in that it is entirely roofed on the model of the mosque of Cordova in Spain. The roof is divided into a number of gables and arches, the latter in the form of domes. A remarkable feature of the interior of the

mosque is that its three sides are supported by wide arches adjoining which are seven corridors, all leading to the central niche in such a way that a person from any part of this big enclosure would be able to see the Imam on the pulpit.

Another monument is the mausoleum of the great saint Khwaja Muhammad Gesu Daraz, popularly known as Khwaja Bande Nawaz. This mausoleum, the construction of which was started by Ahmad I, is regarded with great esteem and veneration by both Hindus and Muslims. With its adjoining tomb of the saint's son, it is a perfect specimen of the Perso-Deccani architecture. It gives an impression of being a double-storeyed structure though in fact it is not. The interior of the mausoleum of both father and son have roofs of a vaulted pattern with ten shallow domes. The main tomb of the saint is of great dimensions and its interior is ornamented with excellent paintings in the Persian style.

Half a mile away from the tomb of the saint can be seen Firuz's tomb. The Tughlaq style of sloping walls has disappeared. Firuz's tomb may be said to be the acme of engineering skill. He built a large city on the banks of the Bhima and called it Firuzabad. The architecture of Firuzabad has incorporated unique structural ideas.

A couple of furlongs from the south gate of the Gulbarga fort, there is a group of three monuments, one of which contains the remains of Bahman Shah, the founder of the dynasty. Of the other two monuments, one with two tall minarets and an imposing entrance is connected with Sheik Sirajuddin Junaidi and the other with Mahmud II, the fifth of the Bahmani kings. Just as Bande Nawaz's tomb is supposed to guard the destiny of Gulbarga city at one end of the town, the temple of Sharanabasaveshwara, built about 150 years ago, over the tomb of the sage Sri Sharanabasaveshwara at the other end of the town, is also believed to protect Gulbarga.

The fort of Gulbarga, originally built by Raja Gulchand, and afterwards strengthened by Bahman Shah is a remarkable structure containing fifteen towers. The forts of Firuzabad, Chincholi and Chittapur are also worthy of mention.

Besides Gulbarga, the structures at Aland, Firuzabad, Gogi, Kodikal and Sagar may be taken as representing the Bahmani architecture.

CHAPTER III

PEOPLE

THE total population of the Gulbarga district according to the 1961 Census was 1,399,457 while the population figure of the 1951 Census was 1,213,608.* The district has ten taluks. The following table gives the figures of population for the district as per the latest Census. **Population**

1961 *Census*

Sex		*Rural*	*Urban*	*Total*
Males	..	587,658	115,789	703,447
Females	..	585,378	110,632	696,010
Total	..	1,173,036	226,421	1,399,457

The taluk-wise population of the district as per the 1961 Census with rural and urban classification details, is as follows:—

Taluk			*Rural*	*Urban*	*Total*
Afzalpur	..	..	90,071	..	90.071
Aland	..	..	142,326	18,009	160,335
Chincholi	..	..	101,716	6,047	107,763
Chittapur	..	..	142,948	31,828	174,776
Gulbarga	..	..	131,704	97,069	228,773
Jevargi	..	..	111,212	..	111,212
Seram	..	..	82,162	8,527	90,689
Shahapur	..	..	126,325	11,776	138,101
Shorapur	..	..	119,895	17,689	137,584
Yadgir	..	..	124,677	35,476	160,153
Total		..	1,173,036	226,421	1,399,457

* *Note*—After the reorganisation of States in 1956 and the transfer of two taluks, *viz.*, Tandur and Kodangal to Andhra Pradesh, the 1951 Census population figures were recast. According to the figures of the Census Department, the population of the district in 1951 excluding the above two taluks was 1,213,608 (*Vide* Census of India 1961, Vol. XI-Mysore, Part II-A, General Population Tables, 1964, p. 73).

As regards the density of population per square mile, Gulbarga gets the 14th place among the districts of the State. In 1951, the density was 184 and according to the 1961 Census, it was 223.

Growth of and variation in Population

As in the case of all other districts of Mysore, the population of Gulbarga has also recorded an appreciable increase during the last few decades. It is seen from the figures of the 1961 Census that the total population increased from 1,213,608 in 1951 to 1,399.457, giving a percentage increase of 15.31. The reasons for the growth of population are generally the excess of births over deaths, and the general improvement in public health and personal hygiene.

The following table gives an idea of the variations of the population of the district since 1901 :—

Year			*Population*	*Decade variation*	*Percentage decade variation*
1901	..	..	883,062	..	..
1911	..	..	964,468	+81,406	+9.22
1921	..	..	887,875	—76,593	—7.94
1931	..	..	990,505	+102,630	+11.56
1941	..	..	1,059,716	+69,211	+6.99
1951	..	..	1,213,608	+153,892	+14.52
1961	..	..	1,399,457	+185,849	+15.31

There was a rise in population during the period from 1901 to 1911 and then there was a fall in the population of the district by the time of the 1921 enumeration. This fall was mainly attributed to the country-wide outbreak of the influenza epidemic in 1918-1919 which ravaged this district also. Since 1921 there has been a steady rise in the population figures.

Urban and rural population—Of the total population of 1,399,457 in 1961, as many as 226,421 lived in towns and 1,173,036 lived in villages, the percentage of urban population to the total population being 16.2. The urban population in the district in 1951 was 226,618.* According to the new principles of enumeration, the towns are divided into six classes according to the size of the population, ranging from those with a population of 1,00,000 and above to those with less than 5,000 inhabitants. In 1951, Gulbarga district had 14 towns, *viz.*, Gulbarga, Yadgir, Shorapur, Shahabad, Aland, Chittapur, Shahapur, Gurmatkal, Seram, Gogipet, Halkatta, Nalwar, Chincholi and Afzalpur. The population of all these

* Statistical Outline of Mysore—1961, Department of Statistics, 1963, page 48.

towns in 1951 came to 226,618. According to the 1961 Census, the urban areas numbered only ten, *viz.*, Aland, Chincholi, Chittapur, Gulbarga, Gurmatkal, Seram, Shahabad, Shahapur, Shorapur and Yadgir with a total population of 226,421.

The drop in the urban population registered in 1961 is apparent, because many places which were formerly classified as urban in all the previous Censuses have now been placed in rural category by the adoption of a more rational definition of the term 'urban'. With the adoption of the new definition, Gulbarga district has been left with a smaller number of towns than before and consequently shows a fall in the urban population. It is appropriate here to give the population figures of towns in 1901 and in 1961.

Town			*Population 1901*	*Population 1961*
Aland	..	..	10,190	18,009
Chincholi	..	..	4,008	6,047
Chittapur	..	..	8,150	11,374
Gulbarga	..	..	29,228	97,069
Gurmatkal	..	..	..	9,712
Seram	..	..	5,503	8,527
Shahabad	..	..	5,105	20,454
Shahapur	..	..	3,251	11,776
Shorapur	..	..	8,271	17,689
Yadgir	..	..	6,271	25,764

From the above table, it can be seen that in some towns the rise in population has been steep, while in some others it has been tardy. Gulbarga town for example has more than trebled its population during the sixty-year period. It may be said that educational advancement in the headquarters town has induced many persons to settle there. The rise in population in towns may not always be due to the drift of population from villages to towns. There is a general tendency of a rise in population all over the country. In Gulbarga district as a whole, there has been an increase of 15.31 per cent between 1951 and 1961 The flow of people from rural areas to urban areas is always there, but this may not be very significant. The unemployed in the rural parts seek various avenues of employment in towns and cities; or during times of scarcity, the landless agricultural labourers may leave their places to migrate to larger towns. But it cannot be definitely said that these are the reasons for the increase in urban population and that there has been a large drift from villages to towns in the district. The population in towns has increased in common with the general rise in population.

Number of households

The number of households in the district in 1951 was 2,21,721. In 1961 it had risen to 2,63,266. The number of households in

rural and urban areas for 1951 and 1961 was as follows :—

	1951	1961
Rural	1,84,862	2,22,487
Urban	36,859	40,799

The increase in the number of households as noticed in the above figures is due to the general rise in population and also to the increased amenities given by the Government by way of housing loans, subsidies and the like.

Languages

Distribution of population on the basis of mother-tongue— The following table gives the distribution of population according to language in the Gulbarga district at the time of the 1951 census.*

Language	*Persons*
Kannada	7,97,527
Telugu	2,98,519
Urdu	2,32,702
Lambadi	62,790
Marathi	44,435
Hindi	5,804
Marwari	1,872
Gujarati	1,104
Korava	924
Khatri	814
Tamil	614
Yerukala	607
Waddari	251
Pardhi	211
Jagannathi	121
Other languages	649

It can be seen from the above that Kannada was the principal language spoken by more than half of the district's population. Telugu and Urdu were next in importance. There were also some sections of people who spoke Lambadi and Marathi. In the town of Gulbarga which had a population of 77,181 in 1951, 37,763 persons spoke Urdu and Kannada came second with 26,054 persons. Nearly half of the population of Gulbarga town spoke Urdu. Persons speaking Kannada were found in large numbers in Chittapur, Yadgir, Shahapur, Shorapur, Aland, Chincholi, Jevargi, Gulbarga rural and Afzalpur taluks while in the taluk of Seram, there was a considerable number of Telugu-speaking persons. Kannada was spoken by 25,953 persons in the taluk. Next to Kannada and Telugu, Urdu occupied an important position in the district. Urdu was also spoken by a large number in Gul-

* The figures include the population of Tandur and Kodangal taluks also.

barga town, Chincholi, Shahapur, Shorapur and Jevargi. As for Marathi, Aland, Afzalpur and Gulbarga town had some sections speaking that language. Seram and Jevargi had the smallest number of Marathi-speaking people. Hindi was spoken in Gulbarga town, Chittapur and Seram taluks. Persons speaking Gujarathi were more in Gulbarga town than in any other place. The other languages shown in the table were spoken by persons whose number was not very considerable.

Telugu and Urdu were two important subsidiary languages in the district. A number of people in the district were also trilingual. Many whose mother-tongue was Kannada were conversant with Urdu and Telugu also. Since Gulbarga was under the rule of the Nizams for quite a long time, Urdu became prominent. People pursuing learned avocations had to learn Urdu.

The Census figures for 1961 reveal an increase of about 1.29 lakhs in the Kannada-speaking population, commensurate with the general increase in the total population of the district. But there has been a considerable decrease in the Telugu-speaking population and it has receded to the third place yielding the second place to Urdu. The number of people speaking Telugu which stood at 2,98,519 at the time of 1951 census, went down to 1,08,920 during the last decade ending with the year 1961. The reason for this decrease is obvious: At the time of the 1951 census, Tandur and Kodangal, two predominantly Telugu-speaking taluks, were in Gulbarga district. They were transferred to Andhra Pradesh in 1956 as a result of the States' Re-organisation. There has not been any perceptible change in the population proportion under the other language groups except the general increase. The following table gives the distribution of population according to languages in Gulbarga district as per the 1961 census :—

Kannada	..	920,422
Urdu	..	239,900
Telugu	..	108,920
Banjari (Lambadi)	.	63,097
Marathi	..	44,541
Hindi	..	10,092
Gujarati	..	2,012
Marwari	..	1,511
Tamil	..	1,048
Korava	..	544
Other languages	..	1,370

Population by Religion

The following table gives distribution of the population of Gulbarga district on the basis of main religions, according to the 1951 Census :—

Hindus	993,724
Muslims	205,865
Christians	9,851
Jains	2,450
Sikhs	70

Thus, out of the total population of the district which was 1,213,608 in 1951, Hindus formed a very large majority. The tract-wise break-up of the figures further showed that the Muslims were to be found in the largest number in Gulbarga town and other urban areas in Chittapur, Yadgir and Jevargi taluks. They were least in number in Afzalpur taluk. The largest number of Christians were in the Yadgir taluk and Gulbarga town, while the smallest number were in Afzalpur taluk. As for Jains, they were mainly concentrated in Aland taluk.

The following table indicates the distribution of population in Gulbarga district on the basis of religion as per 1961 Census :

Hindus	1,144,344
Muslims	242,048
Christians	8,678
Jains	2,562
Buddhists	1,720
Sikhs	89
Others	16

Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes

The term "Scheduled Castes" includes such castes, races or tribes or parts of or groups within such castes, races or tribes as are deemed under Article 341 of the Constitution of India to be the Scheduled Castes. According to the Constitution (Scheduled Castes) Order, 1950, and the Constitution (Scheduled Castes) (Part C States) Order of 1951 as modified by the Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes Lists Modification Order, 1956, the following castes have been declared Scheduled Castes in the district of Gulbarga[1] :

(1) Anamuk
(2) Aray (Mala)
(3) Arwa Mala
(4) Beda (Budga) Jangam
(5) Bindla
(6) Byagara
(7) Chalvadi

1. This applies to Raichur and Bidar districts also.

(8) Chambhar
(9) Dakkal (Dokkalwar)
(10) Dhor
(11) Ellamalwar (Yellammalawandlu)
(12) Holeya
(13) Holeya Dasari
(14) Kolupulvandlu
(15) Madiga
(16) Mahar
(17) Mala
(18) Mala Dasari
(19) Mala Hannai
(20) Malajangam
(21) Mala Masti
(22) Mala Sale (Netkani)
(23) Mala Sanyasi
(24) Mang
(25) Mang Garodi
(26) Manne
(27) Mashti
(28) Mehtar
(29) Mitha Ayyalvar
(30) Mochi
(31) Samagara
(32) Sindhollu (Chindollu)

The term "Scheduled Tribes" includes such tribes or tribal communities or parts of or groups within such tribes or tribal communities as are deemed under Article 342 to be Scheduled Tribes. According to the Constitution (Scheduled Tribes) Order, 1950, and the Constitution (Scheduled Tribes) (Part C States) Order, 1951, as modified by the Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes Lists Modification Order of 1956, the following tribes have been declared as Scheduled Tribes in Gulbarga district[1].—

(1) Bhil
(2) Chenchu or Chenchwar
(3) Gond (including Naikpod and Rajgond)
(4) Koya (including Bhine Koya and Rajkoya)
(5) Thoti

The total number of persons belonging to the Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes in the district, according to the 1951 Census, was 167,394 and 40, respectively.[2] The corresponding figures of the 1961 Census were 217,878 and 1,352, respectively[3]. The

1. The same applies to Raichur and Bidar districts also.
2. Excluding Tandur and Kodangal taluks.
3. Census of India, 1961, Vol. XI, Mysore Part II-A, General Population Tables, 1964, p. 72.

following table gives detailed figures for the Scheduled Castes and Tribes population in the district in 1961.[1]

		Males	*Females*	*Total*
Scheduled Castes—				
Rural	..	98,895	98,620	197,515
Urban	..	10,171	10,192	20,363
Total	..	109,066	108,812	217,878
Scheduled Tribes—				
Rural	..	698	631	1,329
Urban	..	9	14	23
Total	..	707	645	1,352

From the above table it is seen that the population belonging to the Scheduled Castes and Tribes is comparatively larger in rural areas than in urban areas of the district. According to the 1961 Census, percentages of Scheduled Castes and Tribes living at Shahabad and Gulbarga towns are available and it is evident from the following that the percentage of Scheduled Castes and Tribes at Shahabad is higher and at Gulbarga slightly lower than the State average :—

Percentage of Scheduled Castes and Tribes

		Males	*Females*
Shahabad[2]	..	17.54	18.05
Gulbarga[2]	..	7.17	8.59
State average[3]	..	9.59	9.83

Hinduism

The Hindu community in the district, as elsewhere in India, is organised on the basis of castes and sub-castes. The term "Hindu" is wide in meaning and comprises many traditional faiths. The two dominant faiths coming under Hinduism in the Mysore State may be said to be Brahmanism belonging to *Vaidik* school of thought and Veerashaivism which, while having many points in common with Brahmanism, radically differs from it in many others. Among the Brahmins, Madhvas and Smarthas form a considerable number in the district. There are also the Kanva Shakha Brahmins, the Madhyanika Shakha Brahmins

1. Ibid, p. 172.
2. Op. cit., 1961 Census Report, Vol. XI, Part II-A, p. 160.
3. Ibid, p. 159.

and *Srivaishnava* *Brahmins* concentrated in and around the Humnabad region. The Smartha Brahmins derive their name from the *smrithis*, the code of traditional law. They hold the monotheistic Vedanta doctrine of *Advaita* or non-dualism. This is interpreted as belief in one supreme soul. This supreme soul called Brahman is only the existing being, the whole universe including both matter and spirit being nothing but an appearance created by the *Brahman* out of itself with the help of *Maya*. The founder of the Smartha sect was Sri Shankaracharya. The Madhva Brahmins derive their name because of Madhvacharya, the founder of the sect, who was born in South Kanara. Madhvas mainly worship Vishnu and profess the doctrine of *Dvaita* or dualism. By this is meant, the distinction between the independent supreme being and the dependent principle of life (*Jivatman*). Orthodox Madhva Brahmins usually have two vertical lines of sandalwood paste on the centre of the forehead and a black perpendicular line from the junction of the eyebrows to the top of the forehead with a dot in the centre.

Veerashaivism

Veerashaivism as a faith has its basis in the original *Shaivism* and was largely built on the sayings and teachings of Sri Basaveshwara and other *Shivasharanas*. The main features of the Lingayat faith are what are known collectively as *Ashtavaranas* and *Shatsthalas*. Ashtavaranas or the eight emblems comprise the aids to faith and protection against sin and evil. They are (1) devotion to a *guru*, (2) worship of *linga*, the emblem of Lord Shiva, (3) reverence to the Jangamas or priests, (4) use of vibhuti or holy ash, (5) wearing of *rudraksha*, (6) use of *padodaka* or holy water, (7) partaking of *prasada* and (8) Mantra or the uttering of *panchakshari*. Many of these observances are to be found in Brahmanism also. Shatsthalas may be described as the six stages of approximation towards union with Lord Shiva. They are *bhaktha*, *mahesha*, *prasadin*, *prana lingin*, *sharana* and *aikya*. There are three degrees of manifestation of the deity, sometimes described as the *Bhava-linga* corresponding to the spirit, *Prana linga* corresponding to the life of the subtle body and *Ishta linga* corresponding to the material body. The wearing of a *linga* on the person is the distinctive external mark of the Veerashaiva faith. (*See* also p. 78).

Yet another form of popular faith which is prevalent in the district is spirit worship. This consists essentially of a belief in the existence of spirits, secondly of a fear of evils which they inflict and thirdly, their propitiation through sacrifices. The spirits worshipped are many and usually take the forms of goddesses. Among the most common goddesses of this type are Mariamma, Durgamma, Yellamma, Gangamma, Matangamma and Kalamma. Each village in the district has its own goddess known as *gramadevata*. Some of these ammas are associated with cholera, small-pox, chicken-pox and measles and the function of the

gramadevata is to protect her devotees from such pestilences. There is no priesthood attached to animistic beliefs. Ordinarily, the head of the family or that of the community is chosen to officiate as priest. Animal sacrifice was once considered a most accepted doctrine of this cult. With the passage of time and with the enactment of legislation, these sacrifices have now become a thing of the past.

Jainism

The Jains are dispersed throughout the country and their number in the district, according to the 1961 Census, was 2,562. There are two sects among the Jains, *viz.*, Digambaras and Swethambaras. The *Yatis* form the religious order. The moral code of the Jains holds existence as divisible into two heads, namely, *jiva* (life) or the living and sentient principle and *ajiva* (inanimate) or the various modifications of inanimate matter. These are unperishable, though their forms and conditions may change. Their philosophical tenet is designated *Syadvada* as one can neither affirm nor deny anything absolutely. Absolute knowledge is attained only by *Thirthankaras*. All others have only relative knowledge. *Dharma* is virtue and *Ahimsa* is the highest virtue (*ahimsa paramo dharmah*). *Adharma* is vice. Although their objects of worship are the *Thirthankaras*, they pay their devotion to some of the gods in the Hindu pantheon also. They visit a temple where the image of any *Thirthankara* is installed, walk round the image three times, make an offering of fruits and flowers and sing praises in honour of the saint. Their *Japa* is known as *Panchanamaskara* and they make obeisance to *Archana Siddha*, *Acharya*, *Upadhyaya* and *Sarva-sadhu*.

Islam

The essential Muslim beliefs are six in number, *viz.*, (1) in one God, Allah, (2) in angels, (3) in the Koran, (4) in the prophets, (5) in judgment, paradise and hell and (6) in the divine decrees. The five primary duties called the five pillars of Islam are: (1) repetition of the creed—Kalimah—every day, (2) prayer, (3) alms giving, (4) fasting during the month of Ramzan and (5) pilgrimage to Mecca. Apart from the Ramzan, the other principal public feasts are the Bakrid and the Shab-e-Barat. The main sects of Muslims found in Gulbarga district are Mughal, Pathan, Sheikh and Saiyad. The Sheikhs claim a lineal descent from the Prophet Muhammad through his successors and the Saiyads a descent through the Prophet's son-in-law.

Christianity

The Christians, like the Muslims, are strict monotheists. There are both Catholics and Protestants in the district.

Catholics believe in Father, Son and the Holy Ghost as comprising one Supreme. As followers of Jesus Christ, they owe their allegiance to the Holy Church founded by Jesus Christ and entrusted to Peter, the first Vicar (the Pope). His Holiness

the Pope who resides in Vatican City is the supreme religious head of the Catholics.

Protestant Christians are those who follow the teachings of Jesus Christ as the Lord and Saviour and have faith in His death, resurrection and ascension. They believe in His second coming and judgment. They also profess faith in the Holy Trinity, Nicene creed and Apostles' creed.

Castes The following are some of the major castes and communities in the district :—

Bedar
Bhoi (Besta)
Brahmin
Burud
Chakala (Dhobi)
Darji (Simpi)
Devanga (Koshti)
Dhangar
Dhor
Gouli
Idiga
Kapu (Reddi)
Komati (Vaishya)
Kumbhar
Kuruma
Lambada (Lambani or Banjara)
Lingayat (Veerashaiva)
Madiga
Mahar
Mala
Mang
Mangala
Maratha
Panchal
Rajput
Telaga
Teli
Uppar
Waddar

The scope of this chapter does not envisage a detailed description of each caste in the district. Also, such a description is not possible in the absence of population figures of all the castes and sub-castes. As information pertaining to the population figures of the different castes and sub-castes was not collected during the recent Censuses, we have to confine ourselves mainly to a general discussion of the traditional social structure, the customs and manners of the people and the nature of inter-caste and inter-communal relations.

Bedars

The Bedars in the district occupied themselves with hunting and military service under the several dynasties that ruled the Deccan. Later, they took to agriculture. The existence of Jagirs during the rule of the Nizams gave the Bedars an opportunity to serve as village watchmen and messengers. As agriculturists, a few of the Bedars rose to the position of big landlords and Jagirdars. The bulk of the Bedars in the district are either occupancy and non-occupancy raiyats or landless labourers. At the highest level were the Rajas and rich land-holders who had in every respect assumed the modes of the well-to-do, while the lowest level was occupied by the bulk of the people who adhered to their old customs and usages. Many endogamous groups are found among the Bedars. Originally, in the Hyderabad-Karnatak region, there was a fair-sized population of the Ramashri Bedars. Later on many of them migrated to the Marathi region. They regarded with pride the Raja of Shorapur as the head of their clan. During the last century, these Ramashri Bedars gave a good account of their valour in fighting the British. It is on record that the Bedars are divided into 101 exogamous sections. Marriage in one's own section is strictly forbidden. Two brothers may marry two sisters and a man may marry the daughter of his elder sister. In point of religion, the Bedars are divided into Vaishnavas and Shaivas. The Vaishnavas worship Vishnu and the Shaivas pay homage to Shiva.

Bhois

Bhois are also called Bestas in the Kannada districts of the former Hyderabad State. They are mainly fishermen, but many of them are employed as domestic servants. In the past, when they were in the service of the jagirdars, the Bhois were engaged as palanquin-bearers. In Gulbarga district, they are divided into two groups—Marathi and Telugu. In physical features and customs, Marathi Bhois differ markedly from the Telugu Bhois. They are divided into two endogamous groups—the Marathi proper and the Machinde—who eat together but do not inter-marry. The Marathi Bhois may be an off-shoot of the Marathi Kunbis whom they closely resemble and from whom they were probably separated by having taken to the occupation of fishing and the like. The Machinde Bhois claim to be descended from Machindranath, the chief disciple of Gorakhnath. A man of this community cannot marry the daughter of his maternal aunt or of his sister, though he may marry the daughter of his maternal uncle. He rarely marries his paternal aunt's daughter, although such marriages are not prohibited. Two sisters may be married to two brothers, provided the elder sister is married to the elder brother. Ancestral worship is practised widely by this community. The souls of the departed are propitiated every Saturday by the elder members of the family. The members of this community are very scrupulous in the worship of spirits, for it is believed that if they neglect this worship they will not live in peace and happiness.

Brahmins

Among the Brahmins, Madhvas are found in considerable number. They are scattered in all taluks of the district and are followers of the Uttaradi Matha. The Smarthas who are followers of the *advaita* philosophy are also found in several parts of the district. They are followers of the Sankeshwar Matha, Surpur Matha, Hampi Matha and the Sringeri Matha. There are a few Kanva Shakha Brahmins following both *dvaita* and *advaita* philosophies. The Madhyanika Shakha Brahmins follow the tenets of the *advaita* philosophy, but the number of persons of this community is small. In the Shorapur area of the district, there are a few Srivaishnavas. Though the main sects of Madhvas and Smarthas eat together without any objection, inter-marriage amongst them is not common. All the Brahmins, whether they are Smarthas or Madhvas, have according to the sutras to go through the sixteen rites. In addition to these *samskaras,* all sects perform an annual ceremony called the *shraddha*. They are enjoined to observe daily the *sandhya* services, the *pancha maha yajnas* and other rituals. The ladies worship the Tulasi plant.

Buruds

The Kannada Buruds are also called Miyadars in the region. They are identical with the Telanga Medars, but differ from the latter in customs and manners. In the district of Gulbarga, Buruds have accepted Veerashaivism as their religion. Though they are Shaivites, they also worship Lord Venkateshwara; Margamma, Durgamma, Maisamma, Polkamma and Mashamma are among their minor goddesses. The occupation of the caste has been basket-making. They make bamboo baskets and also mats, cages, cradles and the like. Their customs and usages are found to vary greatly in different places, a fact which may be due to their wide distribution and their consequent exposure to different social and religious influences.

Chakalas (Dhobis)

Chakalas appear to be a functional group formed from members of a particular class who officiated as priests to the animistic deities. The Dhobi caste is divided into a very large number of endogamous groups. The name Chakala comes from the word "Sakla" which means service in Telugu. In respect of religion, the Chakalas are Shaivites. They engage Brahmins for some religious and ceremonial purposes and call in Jangamas to officiate at funerals. They also worship Pochamma and Durgamma. Washing of clothes has been the traditional occupation of the caste.

Darjis (Simpis)

The Darjis belong to the tailor caste and trace their origin to Chandrika Devi, the patron goddess of the Devangas (Koshtis.) The caste clearly appears to be a functional group. The Darjis are divided into many sub-castes. In Gulbarga district, there are many Lingayat Darjis who are conforming to the customs and usages of the Lingayats. The Namadeva Darjis claim their descent from the great Marathi saint, Namadeva, who is believed

to have sprung from a *shimpa* (shell) and among them there are two exogamous groups. The marriage of persons belonging to the same section is prohibited. A man may marry the daughter of his maternal uncle. The Namadeva Darjis belong both to the Vaishnava and Shaiva sects. Their special deity is Chandika, worshipped on Ganesha Chauthi, but they pay reverence to all the gods of the Hindu pantheon.

Devangas (Koshtis)

Devanga is a Sanskrit word which means "body of the God" and is applied to this caste since it claims descent from one Devanga Rishi who was created by Lord Mahadeva for the purpose of weaving cloths for gods and men. Probably of Karnatak origin, the Devangas are now scattered all over the district. There are also Lingayat Devangas. Two other branches seem to have sprung from the Devangas, *viz.*, Kuruvina Shetty or Bilimagga and Kurni Sale or Jyandra. Marriage is forbidden between persons belonging to the same exogamous sections. A man may marry the daughter of his elder sister. In the Karnatak districts of the old Hyderabad State, the marriage ceremonies of the Devanga community closely correspond to those among other local castes. In Gulbarga, they are mostly Lingayats worshipping the *linga*. The chief deity is Chowdamma or Choudeshwari, worshipped on the full moon and new moon days with offerings of sweets, especially by women who observe a fast for the whole day. Weaving is the traditional occupation of the caste. They make a variety of textile fabrics, but chiefly sarees and garments worn by women. Some of them have given up their original occupation and taken to trade, agriculture, carpentry and masonry.

Dhangars

Dhangars are shepherds and blanket-weavers. A good many of them now follow agriculture. The Dhangars are considerable in number in the district, estimated to be more than a lakh. Most of the Dhangars have accepted the Lingayat faith. Widow re-marriage and divorce are allowed. The dead are buried. The caste is well-organised, being divided on a territorial basis with a gowda as the headman. They worship also a deity called Biredevaru. The Dhangars have a caste panchayat.

Dhors

Dhors are scattered in all parts of the district and they are Shaivites or devotees of Lord Mahadeva whom they worship. No image is set up to represent the God, but a small piece of ground is smeared with cow-dung on which the devotees burn incense and offer flowers. Tulja Bhavani is worshipped on the Dasara days. The animistic deities, Pochamma, Ellamma, Mariamma and a host of others are also appeased, a Bhoi or a Dhobi officiating as priest at the worship. The Dhors believe also in ghosts and departed spirits and in cases of sickness or disease, an Erkala woman is consulted to divine the cause. At the Divali festival, the Dhors worship the chief implements of their trade like the tan-knife, and the tan-pit in which the hides are steeped. Generally, they are engaged in shoe-making and cobbling.

The Goulis are divided into two sub-castes, *viz.*, Nugarkar and Vajarkar which are evidently territorial divisions. The members of these sub-castes inter-dine but do not inter-marry. Each of these sub-sects is further divided into a number of exogamous sections. In respect of religious and ceremonial observances, the Goulis generally conform to the usages of the Lingayat creed. They wear the *linga* round the neck. Their chosen deity is Lord Mahadeva, whom they worship on festive occasions with offerings of flowers and fruits. A large majority of the caste finds employment as cowherds and a few have taken to agriculture. **Goulis**

The Idigas are of Telugu origin. Their traditional occupation is toddy-tapping. Some of them are also employed in household and other services. A few of them possess lands and are farmers. They worship many of the Hindu deities. They usually bury their dead. **Idigas**

Kapus or Reddis are an agricultural class and they have several sections amongst them. By religion they are both Shaivites and Vaishnavites. They worship several other deities also such as Putlamma, Ankamma, Polaramma, Dasamma and other goddesses. In the Kapu community, women play an important part, except in matters connected with agriculture. Widow remarriage is not allowed except among one or two sections. **Kapus**

The Komatis or Vaishyas are concentrated in the trade centres of the district. The caste contains two main divisions, Vaishnavas and Shaivas, worshipping Vishnu and Shiva respectively. But the chief deities of their worship are god Nagareshwara and goddess Kanyakaparameshwari. Most of the Komatis are merchants, jewellers or money-lenders. The tendency for a boy to marry his maternal uncle's daughter is pronounced in this caste. **Komatis (Vaishyas)**

The Kumbhars are the potter caste in the district, concerning whose origin differences of opinion prevail. According to some authorities, they are a mixed community. The Kumbhars themselves claim to be descended from Shalivahana. But it seems highly probable that like other functional castes, this caste was also drawn from among different classes of Hindu society. The name Kummara or Kumbhara is derived from the Sanskrit *Kumbhakara—kumbha* (water jar) and *kara* (maker). The caste has six endogamous divisions. As the sub-castes are territorial groups, each has its own exogamous sections characteristic of the locality it occupies. The exogamous sections are based upon family names and are either territorial or titular groups. Only a few of them are totemistic. The patron deity of the Telugu Kumbhars is Pochamma. Almost all the gods of the Hindu pantheon are held in great reverence by the members of the caste. On Ganesha Chauthi day, they worship the implements of their **Kumbhars**

craft with offerings of sweetmeats and flowers. The women worship Gowri, the consort of Lord Shiva. Ancestral worship prevails and is performed on every new moon day. In Gulbarga district, there is a large population of the Balija Kummaras. Being Lingayats by creed, they abstain from meat and liquor.

Kurumas

The Kurumas bear the honorific title Gowd attached to their names. In Gulbarga district, this caste has four divisions. In respect of religion, the Kurumas are both Vaishnavas and Shaivas. Some of them are followers of the Lingayat creed. The members of this caste worship important gods of the Hindu pantheon and observe many of the Hindu festivals. Muslim saints are also revered by them. The Kurumas have also a belief in ghosts and spirits. They identify these ghosts and spirits with the help of Erkala women and appease them with offerings. They hold in high esteem the great guru Beerappa and the oath administered to the members of the community in his name on important occasions is deemed very sacred by them. The majority of the caste are engaged in their traditional occupation of tending sheep and goats and weaving blankets. A few of the Kurumas have taken to cultivation.

Lambadas

Lambadas or Lambanis, also called Banjaras, are in a good number in Gulbarga district. They are well-built and are a sturdy race. They speak the Lambadi language. Mostly, they live in colonies called *tandas* which are located quite away from the villages. They build their *tandas* on a high ground. In the old days, they occupied themselves in transportation of food-grains from place to place by using pack animals. Due to the advent of modern transportation methods, they lost that occupation. They do not generally mix with the local population. Some of them were habitual criminals, but they have now been rehabilitated. Most of them are engaged as labourers. Polygamy and widow remarriage were in practice. It is usual for divorced women to marry again. The Lambadas worship Lord Krishna and goddess Banashankari.

Lingayats or Veerashaivas

The Lingayats form the largest community in the district. The Lingayats do not perform *yajnas*. They follow a simplified system of daily and special ceremonies. The daily rituals consist of *Shivapuja* or *Lingapuja* or the worship of Shiva, in the form of Linga, while the special ceremonies consist of what are known as ten rites, many of them being common with the Brahmanic rites. The Lingayat has also to observe the five *acharas* in his daily life viz.,*Lingachara*, *Sadachara*, *Bhakthachara*, *Shivachara* and *Ganachara*. They bury the dead in a sitting position, carrying the body to the grave propped up in a chair and they do not perform annual *Shraddha* (*See* also p. 71).

Madigas

The etymology of the name, Madiga, is uncertain, although attempts are made to derive it from the word Matanga, the name

of an aboriginal tribe mentioned by ancient authorities. The legends of the Madigas, however, do not seem to give any clue to their origin or early history. The Madigas have two main divisions, Kannada Madigas and Telugu Madigas, who do not inter-marry. Each of these is broken up into numerous sub-sects. The Madigas are animistic in their belief and pay reverence to the deities of diseases and the spirits of deceased persons. Their chief deity is Matangi who is believed to be the female progenitor of the caste. The original occupation of the caste is believed to be the skinning of the dead animals, leather dressing and making of leather ropes, and leather buckets for hauling water from the wells. Like the Malas, they are field workers and supply the farmers with leather articles. They make foot-wear of various kinds and also work as servants.

Mahars

Mahars are perhaps the oldest inhabitants of the region. The Mahar is an indispensable factor in village life. Every community residing in the village requires his services. The Mahars are divided into several sub-castes, the members of which do not inter-marry. A man may marry the daughter of his mother's brother or father's sister, but he cannot marry the daughter of his mother's sister. Two brothers may marry two sisters. The religion of the Mahars varies from primitive animism to popular Hinduism. Their principal deity is Mariali, the goddess of cholera. They also worship Mahadeva and also Vithoba. They are chiefly occupied as village servants. They held grants of land or received a grain allowance. Their public duties are to watch the boundaries of fields and to carry Governments letters. Many of them are engaged as day labourers in agricultural fields.

Malas

The Mala community is a large one and is distributed throughout the Karnatak region of the old Hyderabad State. It has broken up into numerous endogamous groups. The Malas are animistic in their creed and worship the deities of nature and diseases such as Pochamma, Ellamma, Mariamma and Mutyalamma. The Malas are labourers, servants and village watchmen. Some of them weave coarse cotton cloth. A few of them have taken to agriculture, but in most cases they are engaged as farm labourers.

Mangs

This caste corresponds to the Madigas and both are probably branches of the same parent stock, separated from each other by reasons of their living in different localities. The caste is divided into endogamous groups. The Mangs hold the tiger in reverence and will neither kill nor injure it, either of these acts being regarded as sinful. Marriage in one's own section is avoided. All the goddesses of the several epidemic diseases are worshipped by them, but the other gods like Maruthi, Bhavani, Mahadeva and others are not neglected. The occupation of the Mangs is the weaving of flaxen tape for cots ; they also make ropes, brooms and

mats from the date palm. They are also tanners and workers in raw hides and leather.

Mangalas

The Mangalas are barbers by profession. The name Mangala, which means auspicious, seems to have reference to the barber's service which is indispensable in several Hindu ceremonial acts. The Mangalas are divided into many sub-castes. In the Karnatak areas of the old Hyderabad State there is a preponderance of Lingayat Mangalas. They claim heritage from Hadapada Appanna, who was the barber of Sri Basaveshwara and was one of his disciples. The religion of the Mangalas other than the Lingayat section differs very little from that of the Kapus and other Telugu castes. They are either *Namadharis* worshipping Vishnu in the form of Narasimha or are *Vibhutidharis* and pay reverence to Shiva. For religious and ceremonial purposes they engage Brahmins. The local deities Pochamma, Ellamma, and Mariamma are propitiated on Sundays and Thursdays with offerings.

Marathas

The Marathas follow the Brahmanic religious usages, observing almost all the sacraments. They worship Bhairava, Bhavani, Khandoba, Mhasoba, Vithoba and others. Besides these deities, the Marathas worship the other gods of the Hindu pantheon such as Shiva, Rama, Ganapathi, Krishna, Dattatraya. Brahmins are engaged for religious and ceremonial purposes. The bulk of the Marathas follow agriculture as their chief occupation. They are also occupancy and non-occupancy raiyats. Some had acquired substantial tenures. Many of them are Patels and some of them were Deshmukhs, who were formerly superior officers in the revenue divisions. They were employed by the Muslim Governments and acted as middlemen between the cultivators and the State. In course of time, they rose to great local importance and became landed proprietors and zamindars. A number of Marathas have entered the Indian Defence Services.

Panchals

The Panchals claim that they came originally from the Panchala country. The names of their various groups are Akkasale, Kammara, Kanchugara, Shilpi and Badagi These intermarry and inter-dine, except occasionally in urban areas where the goldsmiths remain separate from blacksmiths. Widow remarriage and divorce are not usually permitted.

Rajputs

The Rajputs are found in all taluks of the district. The members of this caste claim descent from the ancient Solar and Lunar dynasties which once ruled India. Their traditions say that they came into the Deccan from North India and the earliest settlers are said to have been soldiers with the Muslim armies that over-ran the Deccan. According to Sir Elliot, the Rajputs once possessed the whole of Maharashtra. The Rajputs are divided

into two endogamous divisions, the members of which do not inter-marry. There are also a number of exogamous divisions. Rajputs are orthodox Hindus and worship all the Hindu divinities of the area in which they happen to have settled. Special reverence is however paid by them to Durga and Mahalakshmi. The dead are burnt in a lying posture with the head pointing to the south.

Telagas Telaga is a generic term. The Telagas comprise sixteen groups. Their marriage celebrations are conducted in the orthodox style. Brahmins are called in to conduct the ceremonial rites. Widow re-marriage is permitted. In respect of religion, the Telagas are divided into Shaivites and Vaishnavites. Many educated members of the community are in the learned professions. The great majority of Telagas are cultivators.

Telis Telis are a large functional caste of oilseed-pressers and traders found almost in every village in the district. The members of the Teli caste are called *ganigaru* in Gulbarga district. The predominant faith of the Telis in the Kannada areas is Veerashaivism. Almost all Telis are *vibhutidharis* or devotees of Lord Shiva whom they worship.

Uppars Traditionally, the Uppars are engaged in cultivation and labour. Many of them are brick-layers and some are lime-burners. The caste has two linguistic divisions, Telugu and Kannada, which do not inter-marry. Each of these is further sub-divided into several exogamous groups. Widow re-marriage and divorce are allowed. The dead are usually buried. They are Vaishnavites by religion and they worship also all the village deities.

Waddars Excavation of stone from quarries and working in earth are traditional occupations of Waddars. They are also engaged in tank-digging, well-sinking, road-making and in other kinds of outdoor labour. A few have taken to agriculture. Their patron deity is Gorappa. Pochamma and Venkatesha are also propitiated. Muslim saints are also honoured by the members of the caste.

Social Life

Property and inheritance All the Hindu castes and communities in the district are governed by the Hindu Law, inheritance being in the male line. No other form of inheritance is in vogue in Gulbarga district. The affiliation of a son-in-law in the family is even now prevalent in some castes, particularly the Kapus. Among some sections of the Scheduled Castes, a resident son-in-law receives an equal share in his faher-in-law's property with his brothers-in-law. A similar custom is prevalent in certain other communities. According to this custom, when a man has no sons, a daughter is married to a man who agrees to become a member of the family

and who thereafter resides with his father-in-law and inherits his estate for his children. In case any sons are born to the father-in-law after such affiliation, his property is equally divided among the sons and the affiliated son-in-law.

Joint Family System

The joint family system so characteristic of the Mitakshara law of inheritance, was predominant among the Hindus of the district, till very recently, and even now, quite a few households accept this system unquestioningly and give due respect to the accepted head of the family. But changes in the pattern of society and the new laws of inheritance have been responsible for the splitting up of families. The process was accelerated by the abolition of jagirs and inams which gave a vigorous jolt to the old system. There is now a perceptible tendency among the propertied members of families to get themselves partitioned out as early as possible and one of the reasons for such haste may be ascribed to the uncertainty that prevailed for some time in regard to ownership of agricultural land. Ownership of large estates was the *raison d'etre* of the joint family system and once these estates were abolished, the joint family system had perforce to decline. The Hindus in the district follow the Hindu law in matters like succession, partition and privileges of minors. The Hindu Succession Act of 1955 gives equal rights to the son and the daughter, in the event of the propertied owner dying intestate. The impact of this new law, which is an off-shoot of the codification of the Hindu law, is being felt in the district and signs are not wanting of big property-holders settling the question of inheritance through wills. But, by and large, the vast changes in the pattern of Hindu law have not been unwelcome in the district. The Muslims who form a sizable population in the district are governed by the Muslim law.

Marriage and Morals

As regards marriage alliances, there are many restrictions among the generality of castes and tribes. A man must not marry outside the limits of his caste and if he is a member of a sub-caste, he may not marry outside the particular sub-caste. In respect of several castes, *viz*., Kuruba, Holeya, Agasa, Uppara, Kumbhara and Devanga, linguistic, territorial, religious and occupational differences always prove effectual bars to inter-marriage. Again, in some castes, the rule that the bride and the bridegroom should not belong to the same *gotra* (sept) prevails. Side by side with these restrictions on marriage, there exists in almost all sections of the people, a custom which allows marriage between near relatives. Among most castes and tribes in the district, a woman's brother enjoys an important position in the family. It might be said that the practice of a man to ask for the hand of his sister's daughter either for himself or for his son is wide-spread. Among Kurubas, Chakalas, Kumbharas and Idigas, it is the right and duty of the maternal uncle to cut the *kalli* plant required for erecting the marriage mantap. Among certain sections of the

Harijans, the *thali* is tied to the bride by the maternal uncle. Among the Lingayats, a portion of the present made to the bride must go to the maternal uncle and another portion to the bride's sister. Among the Idigas and Telugu-Banajigas, the duty of tying the *Bhasinga* to the bridegroom's forehead lies on the maternal uncle. Among some castes, the bride is brought to the marriage pandal by her maternal uncle. Among the Madigas (Scheduled Castes), the bride and the bridegroom are each lifted up by their respective maternal uncles who circle round three times and upset a jug of water by giving it a kick.

Traditionally, a number of castes were celebrating child marriages or pre-puberty marriages. In practice as also under the law, child marriages are not now in vogue. The Hindu Marriage Act, 1955, has fixed the marital age for girls at 16 and for boys at 21. A definite turn in social habits is noticeable in the present age.

Forms of marriage.—Among the Brahmins and those following them, the universal rule is to give away the bride as a gift to a suitable bridegroom. This is called *Kanyadana* and it was associated with the giving of dowry, which evil has been now prohibited by a Central law. The amount of dowry varied from Rs. 500 to Rs. 5,000 or even more. The emergence of a law has not, however, eradicated the evil which still persists to a certain extent. Among certain other castes and tribes, it was the bridegroom's party that had to pay the dowry. The amount thus paid was commonly known as " Tera " or " Teravu " and it was to be in cash. This amount was tied up in a bit of yellow cloth ;now-a-days, in many communities only the poor take the tera and the rich eschew it. Sometimes, as among the Kurubas, if the amount to be paid was heavy, its payment was spread over a number of years. Occasionally, when the bridegroom was too poor to pay, he was allowed to work in his father-in-law's house, being fed and clothed by the latter. There was no specified period of service but usually, as among the Waddars, the son-in-law had to serve until he begot a female child and presented her to his brother-in-law.

Marriage Ceremonies — Hindu

Among the generality of castes, the marriage ceremonies are elaborate and in all their details last usually for 2-3 days. Usually, the marriage takes place at the bride's place. Among a section of the Harijans, the marriage takes place at the bridegroom's place. Among most castes, the marriage ceremonies include, *inter alia*, the planting of the Indian coral tree (halgamba in Kannada)., This pole is decorated with saffron, chunam and green leaves and forms one of the important ceremonies. On the actual day of the marriage, four pots are placed in a square near this pole and a thread is passed round them. Within the enclosure so made, the pair are bathed together and

dressed in new clothes. A part of the thread wound round the pots is taken, dipped in saffron, and then tied to the wrists of the couple. Next, the *thali* or the *mangalasutra* is tied to the bride's neck. This over, the wedded pair eat out of the same leaf-platter, a ceremony which is called the *bhooma*. The relations present are feasted.

The ceremonies at the re-marriage of a widow or of a woman who has left her first husband are very much simpler. This ceremony is called *udike*. Only widows take part in this. Sometimes, the bride is merely taken by the other widows into a dark room of the house, invested with new clothes, marked with *kumkum* and given a *thali* and then handed over to her new husband.

There is practically no difference between the details of marriage among the Brahmins in this district and those in other parts of the State. The marriage takes place usually at the bride's residence or occasionally in a temple or a choultry. After the arrival of the bridegroom at the bride's place, the important steps of the ceremony are *varapuja* or the honouring of the bridgroom by the bride's parents, *nandi* which invokes the ancestors of the bridal couple, *kankana dharana* symbolising the couple's entry into the marriage state, the sprinkling of a few grains of *akshata* or reddened rice by the couple on each other's head and also by the invitees over the couple and the tying of the *mangalasutra* followed by *lajahoma* and *sapthapadi* which marks the end of the marriage ceremony.

In the Lingayat marriage, there is no *agni* or the sacred fire. The place of fire amongst them is taken by the *panchakalashas*. The wedding is celebrated generally in the house of the bride. The most important part of the marriage ceremony is the tying of the *mangalasutra* by the bridegroom around the neck of the bride. The priest then invokes the divine blessing and all the people present throw *akshata* on the couple and bless them

Muslim Marriage

Marriage between cousins is not prohibited among the Muslims. In fact a marriage with the first cousin is preferred. However, a person cannot marry his sister's daughter. Polygamy is permitted to the number of four wives, but many observe monogamy. A man may not marry his wife's sister during his wife's life-time unless she has been divorced. Divorce is at the option of the husband, but is resorted to only as the last expedient. Widow remarriage is generally practised and a widow can marry her deceased husband's brother or relative. When sons attain manhood, their parents consult relatives, friends and also match-makers. At their suggestions, marriage negotiations start. On the betrothal day, both at the bride's and bridegroom's

houses there is a gathering of relatives. In the evening, ladies of the bridegroom's family and a gay procession of children go to the bride's house with ornaments and sweetmeats in covered trays. The bride is bedecked with ornaments, adorned with rings on her fingers and her face covered with a scarf. Two or three days before the actual marriage, both at the houses of the bridegroom and the bride a number of earthen pots are arranged in a booth in front of the house or in the inner apartments. On the eve of the marriage, the bridegroom's party goes in a procession carrying in trays sweetmeats, dried fruits, ornaments and articles of dress for the bride. The party goes back with the trays refilled with clothes for the bridegroom. Dressed in his wedding clothes and with a *sehra* (flower sheet) fastened round his head, he rides on a horse and followed by his friends, starts for the bride's house. The bridegroom is led to his seat and the bride's representatives find their way to theirs. Then the *kazi* asks the bride's representatives whether she accepts the bridegroom. When told she will have him, he takes a declaration of two witnesses. He then puts the same question to the bridegroom and obtains his consent. The proceedings are recorded. The *kazi* reads out the nikha. At dawn the bridegroom is for the first time shown his wife's face in a mirror. A chapter of the Koran is also read.

Christian Marriages

The Christians celebrate their marriage in the church. All arrangements for the wedding are made in the bride's house. It is the duty of parish priest or any other religious authority superior to the parish priest to conduct the marriage. After the marriage service is read, the bridegroom and the bride are asked whether both agree to the union. The marriage is then solemnised.

The old ideas about marriage are fast losing their hold on the people. The marriage rituals are simplified due to many reasons. Instead of five days, the marriage celebrations are completed now in two or three days. Views are also changing regarding intercaste connections. Though inter-caste marriages are still not very many, their number is slowly increasing.

Divorce

Among the orthodox Hindus, divorce is not generally in practice. Among some other castes, it is in vogue. It can be brought about at the instance of either party for infidelity or other serious reasons. According to the Hindu Marriage Act of 1955, divorce is granted on certain specific issues to be determined by courts.

Monogamy and Polygamy

As a rule, monogamy prevails among many castes. The special reasons that might sanction a second wife are the failure of the first to bear a son, or her affliction by an incurable disease. The Hindu Marriage Act, 1955, strictly forbids polygamy. Although the Muslims are permitted to have more than one wife, in actual practice, many observe monogamy.

Social Evils

The district is not free from social evils. In some places, prostitution is resorted to by some women for their livelihood, though it is prohibited by law. They are looked down upon by society. In Gulbarga town, what are called *jalsas* used to take place when some women used to show their attractions. Prohibition has not yet been introduced in the district. Gambling is yet another social evil leading to quarrels among those who are engaged in it. On receipt of information, the police parties conduct raids and the offenders are booked.

Home Life

Rural dwellings

Almost every village in Gulbarga district was well fortified in the old days, since due to unsettled conditions, the population was always in fear of attacks and molestation. Traces of the enclosed stone walls and the circular watch towers still exist. Even the stone houses look like miniature fortifications. As stone is plentiful in the Gulbarga district, almost all rural houses are built in stone, with scant provision for ventilation. Usually, each dwelling house has two doors, the house itself consisting of two partitions, one serving as a living apartment for the family, the other being used as a kitchen. The ruined walls round the villages are perhaps the vestiges of a time when each village had to protect itself as best as it could from depredations. Big landlords, merchants and money-lenders own big houses with a large number of rooms. Cattle are accommodated in enclosures very near the house and add to the general insanitariness. Villages are generally located near streams and river valleys. Where there is no other water supply, wells are the only source. Each village has a couple of step-wells or draw-wells and the summer season witnesses a period of acute water scarcity in many of the villages.

Urban housing

Houses in the towns do not differ very largely from the rural pattern, except that many of them are better built and have more accommodation. These houses have spacious rooms, a verandah and a separate block for the kitchen and bathroom and some of them have an upper storey also. Modern-type concrete-roofed houses are becoming common. New concepts of house-building are slowly gaining ground and in Gulbarga town itself, there are a few structures conforming in style to what may be called the modern cottage house.

Human wants in earlier days were few. The houses of the upper class and the middle class families had a few articles of furniture like benches, stools, cots and almirahs. In recent decades, the items of furniture have considerably increased. Most of the houses of the upper and middle class families are well-furnished and decorated. Chairs, sofas, tables, bedsteads, stools, benches, shelves, tea-poys, settees, mirrors, chest of

drawers and coat stands have become almost indispensable items of furniture in a modern house. Oil lamps and kerosene lanterns have now been replaced by electric lights in many urban areas. Vessels made of stainless steel are in great demand. The poorer sections cannot however afford to have all these modern amenities in their houses. Their furniture consists mainly of mats and coir-cots and their utensils, of earthen pots.

Dress and Ornaments

The generality of the men use a head-gear. The *dhoti*, a sheet of white cloth covers the lower limbs. It is worn generally in the *katche* style, *i.e.*, one end of it being gathered into folds in front and the other passed between the legs and tucked in at the waist behind. A shirt, half or full, covers the upper part. A piece of cloth called *Shalya* is often thrown over the shoulders by elders. While attending offices or other places of work, elderly people wear a turban, which is called *rumal* in Kannada and a long close-collared coat. The merchant classes dress more or less in the same manner. Among the younger generation, the western type of dress consisting of a pair of trousers and a shirt and a coat or a bush shirt has become common. Boys wear a cap when attending school while a few others prefer to be bare-headed. The average cultivator in rural areas dresses in thick coarse cotton clothes. He also wears a turban. In the rural areas of Gulbarga, Muslim women also wear sarees.

The dress pattern of the women follows traditional lines. A tight-fitting short bodice called *kuppasa* is generally worn. The *sire* or saree, a long sheet of cloth is wrapped round the lower parts of the body coming down to the ankle. One end of this is gathered into a large bunch of folds in front, while the other passing across the bosom lies freely over the left shoulder or is taken over the right shoulder so as to cover the body more fully. The latter end of the saree among the generality of castes, except the Brahmins and some other castes, is taken over the head. Among some Brahmin sects, particularly among the Madhvas, the saree is worn in the *katche* fashion. The usual dress of the girls consists of a *langa* or skirt and a jacket or occasionally a frock. The Lambanis are noted for their peculiar dress. The Lambani women's dress consists of a *langa* or gown of coarse print, a petticoat and a mantle often elaborately embroidered. The hair is worn in ringlets or plaits hanging down each side of the face and decorated with small shells and silver ornaments.

The passion for ornaments is universal. But it is not as strong to-day as in the old days and there have been changes in the styles. Every village has its goldsmith and in the cities there has been an influx of them from other parts. Gold ornaments of to-day usually consist of ear-rings, nose-studs, necklaces, bangles and rings. Silver ornaments are common in rural areas, consisting of chains and heavy rings for the ankle. Fashions have changed,

lightness and fineness being now preferred to heavier ornamentation.

Food Habits

The dietary of the people of a particular area is usually studied on the basis of the classification into vegetarians and non-vegetarians. But this distinction is not very rigid as some of the non-vegetarians take meat only on certain days. The staple food of the people is jowar. Jowar is ground into flour and made into cakes (rotti) which are eaten with condiments and vegetables. The poorer sections of the community who cannot afford vegetables, eat the jowar flour cakes with chutney. The well-to-do classes take rice, wheat as also jowar. With the spread of cosmopolitanism, vegetarians have started taking a standard menu consisting of rotti or chapati, rice, ghee, sambhar, vegetables, happala, pickles, butter-milk or curds. This is the usual menu in all the hotels serving vegetarian meals. Most people take their meals on leaf platters though of late plates are coming into use. Some of the Lingayats in rural areas use the *addanige*, a small three-legged wooden stool, for placing the plate in which they take their food. On festival days and other special occasions, the normal meal is supplemented by sweets and savouries. Most people have two meals a day, one at noon, and the other in the night. In addition to these principal meals they take a breakfast in the morning and tea or coffee in the evening. In the rural areas, those who are engaged in manual labour generally take three meals, in the morning, at mid-day and in the night. Except the Lingayats, Vaishyas, Brahmins and Jains, most of the other communities eat meat and fish.

There are a number of restaurants and hotels in the urban and rural areas of the district, serving the needs of all categories of people. Beverages such as tea, coffee, cocoa, malt drinks and the like are served in big restaurants, while in the villages the customers are content with tea. Meat and egg preparations such as *biryani*, *kurma*, cutlet, chips, soup and omelette are popular in the non-vegetarian restaurants. As Gulbarga is very hot in summer, the people quench their thirst with cool drinks, sherbets and aerated waters. Smoking, chewing of betel leaves and the use of snuff are also common.

Festivals

The Hindus have many festivals spread over the year. While some festivals are common to all the castes, others are observed by some. Although these festivals are mainly religious in nature, they afford much scope for social intercourse. *Ugadi* or *Yugadi*, the first day of month of *Chaitra* is observed as the new year day. The Hindu almanac or *panchanga* is read and all the members of the family take rich and delicious food to mark the occasion.

Ramanavami, i.e., the birthday of Sri Rama is observed on the ninth day of *Chaitra Shuddha*; relatives and friends are

invited and they are served with soaked and spiced dhal called *Kosumbari* and given sweet drinks. *Hanuma Jayanti* is observed on the full moon day of *Chaitra*. *Basava Jayanti, i.e.,* the birthday of Sri Basaveshwara, falls on the third day of *Vaishakha Shuddha*. This is a sacred day for all the Lingayats. On that day, many Lingayats of the district go to Basava-Kalyan and other places to pay homage to his memory. *Narasimha Jayanti* on the full moon day of *Vaishakha* is observed by the Brahmins. *Mahashivarathri* on the new moon day of *Magha* is the most important festival for Shaivites. On that day, they fast and worship Shiva at home or in a temple. The next day, they break the fast with a feast. *Nagapanchami,* the fifth day of *Shravana Shuddha* is observed by almost all sections of the Hindu population. *Gokulashtami* or the birthday of Sri Krishna is yet another important festival. *Ganesha Chaturthi* falling on the fourth day of the bright half of *Bhadrapada* is observed by many castes as a day of feast and worship. *Navarathri* which begins from the first day of *Ashvija Shuddha* is observed throughout the district, when people worship *Shakthi*. *Divali or Dipavali* is observed as a festival of lights. Among other festivals *Makara Sankranthi* and *Holi* are important.

The important Muslim festivals are Bakrid, Shab-e-Barat and Ramzan. Both the Catholic and Protestant Christians observe Christmas, the birth-day of the Christ, and Easter, the day of Resurrection.

Entertainments

The Lambani dance and the hand-clapping dance are very popular in rural areas. No public function in the villages is complete without a performance of these colourful dances. Open air dramas called *bayalata* are very popular in the villages. In some places, pigeon flying is a popular pastime. Ram fights are also common. Modern games like cricket, football, volley-ball and badminton are played in schools and colleges. In places, where important public offices are located, the employees have their recreation clubs. Children play a number of indigenous games like *chinni-dand, killi-pathi* and others. Among girls, *kolata* is popular. The elders spend their leisure hours in listening to religious discourses like puranas, kirthanas and in bhajans and the like. The Bedars and the Bhois go hunting in the scrub jungles to catch pigs, hares and other animals. Festivals like *Basava Jayanthi, Ganesha Chaturthi* and *Dasara* are utilised for arranging public lectures, variety entertainments and sports events.

Jatras and fairs are held in all parts of the district. These are annual occasions got up in reverence to a local god or goddess. In most cases the jatras and fairs are held when the idol is taken in a *ratha* or car. Cattle fairs are also held on specified dates. A list of the jatras and fairs held in Gulbarga district is given Chapter VI—Banking, Trade and Commerce.

Funeral rites

Cremation is observed, as a rule, among the Brahmins, Banjaras and Vaishyas. Occasionally, aged and respected among some Harijans are also cremated. Several of the other castes bury their dead. Among the Muslims, the dead are buried in the lying posture with the face towards Mecca. Lingayats bury their dead in the sitting posture.

Special Features

A noteworthy feature of social life in this district is that the old habits of reverence to elders and obtaining guidance from them in all matters have not yet disappeared. The elders are regarded with high esteem and their advice is often sought by the younger members and this is so of all communities. This is due to the profound influence of many saints who lived in the region. The teachings of Sri Basaveshwara who spread his message of correct conduct in life have had a profound influence, not only among the Lingayats, but also among other communities.

CHAPTER IV

AGRICULTURE AND IRRIGATION

THE total geographical area of the district is reckoned at 39,29,947 acres. The total forest area, not available for agricultural purposes, in 1964-65 was 1,71,005 acres. The cultivable waste occupies an area of 92,488 acres. The net area sown, as per figures supplied by the District Agricultural Office was 31,29,243 acres in 1962-63. From these figures it is clear that the area available for cultivation is about three-fourths of the total area of the district. The types of soil found in the district are of shallow to medium black, deep black, red sandy loams, laterite and alluvial. Vast areas in parts of Gulbarga, Chittapur, Seram, Chincholi and Shorapur taluks are covered with soils which are black in colour, showing distinctive features for facilitating dry cultivation. In some places, the black soils are uniform in texture and in others, they are intermixed with patches of red soils. In the latter case, the red soils usually occur on elevated areas and the black soils at the lower plains or in the valleys.

The black soils found in Gulbarga district are also called regurs, black earths and black cotton soils. These are compared to the chernozems found in temperate zones and differ from them in the low content of organic matter and humus. The black soils are slaty black to dark brown in colour and contract to an unusual degree on drying. The black colour of these soils has been variously attributed to a black mineral, titanic magnetite, usually found associated with this type of soil. The black soils have originated from different parent materials, *viz.*, Deccan traps, Dharwar schists, limestones and granites under uniform soil-forming factors. They are rich in bases like lime and magnesium and have a high base exchange capacity (50 to 66 milli-equivalents per 100 grams of soil). They often contain lime concretions called "Kankar" and occasionally crystals of gypsum in the sub-soil. The presence of gypsum crystals tends to improve sub-soil drainage and prevents the rise of alkali salts to the soil surface. The black soils are usually clayey with a clay content ranging from 40 to 70 per cent. The water holding capacity of these soils is high, *viz.*, 60.57 per cent. Various theories have been put

forward concerning the origin of black soils from their parent rocks. Two important local factors are ascribed to their formation, *viz.*, the arid climate and the petrographical peculiarities of the parent rocks. The depth of the black soils differs in different localities. On the uplands, the soils are thin, light-coloured and poor. On the valleys and low-lying plains, the soils are deep extending upto 20 feet. The black soils are also classified into shallow, medium and deep, depending upon the depth of the soils and the drainage characteristics of the sub-soil for purposes of localisation for irrigation and cropping. Soil test values conducted in the district prove that the soils have a high concentration of soluble salts which are either critical for growth or for germination. The organic matter has a high concentration of alkalinity. The results of detailed soil tests all over the district indicate a strong tendency for the soils to develop alkalinity. Seventy-three per cent of the soils are alkaline. The salt content is normally low and reaches harmful concentrations only in about six per cent of the soils. The majority of the soils are low in phosphorous content. They are, however, well supplied with available potash except in about 11 per cent where they are low.

Geology and Soils

Gulbarga district contains soils derived from Deccan traps, Vindhyan formations, granites, gneisses and laterites. Ancient alluvial gravels and limestone formations, sometimes of considerable thickness, occur along the valleys of the Krishna and Bhima rivers. The predominant type of the soil in the district is the black soil derived chiefly from the Deccan traps. Medium to shallow black soils occur in the taluks of Gulbarga, Yadgir and Jevargi. The soils are clay to clay loams with lime nodules and concretionary trap stones found intermixed. Medium to deep black soils are found in Gulbarga, Aland, Afzalpur, Chincholi, Shahapur and Jevargi taluks. Heavy deep black clays occur in Chittapur and Seram taluks with a substratum of sheet limestone. Light red sandy soils occur in the southern and south-eastern taluks of the district such as Shahapur, Shorapur and Yadgir and in Aland and Afzalpur taluks. Often, the higher elevations in these taluks are occupied by the lighter, open-textured soils and the lower valley and plain portions are occupied by heavy black soils. The northern parts of Gulbarga and Chincholi taluks possess laterites and soils derived from laterites. There are narrow alluvial strips along the banks of the Bhima and Krishna rivers. Large patches of chalk occur in the southern and eastern portions of the district, *viz.*, Shorapur, Yadgir, Chincholi and a part of Shahapur. The following table indicates the soil types in the district :—

Type of soil and characteristics	*Place*	*Crops*
1 Shallow to medium black soils.—		
Grey to deep black in colour, clay to clay loams. Lime nodules present. High base content and water holding capacity.	Gulbarga, Yadgir and Jevargi.	Irrigated or rain-fed jowar, gram, safflower, cotton and linseed.
2. Deep black soils.—		
Deep black in colour with concretionary trap stones. Lime nodules present. High base status, clayey in texture.	Parts of Gulbarga, Chittapur, Seram, Chin-choli and Shorapur taluks.	Irrigated or rain-fed jowar, cotton, wheat, pulses, gram, safflower, linseed and paddy.
3. Red sandy loams.—		
Red to pale brown in colour, shallow to medium deep, well leached, sandy to sandy loam in texture.	Parts of Yadgir, Shorapur, Aland and Afzalpur taluks.	Irrigated paddy, bananas, vege-tables, rainfed jowar, cotton and pulses.
4. Laterite soils.—		
Bright red to pale red, sandy to sandy loam in texture. Poor in water-holding capacity and in bases.	Northern parts of Gulbarga and Chincholi taluks.	Irrigated paddy, chillies, onions and vegetables, rainfed jowar, millets, pulses and groundnuts
5. Alluvial soils.—		
Clay to clay loams, rich in bases.	Banks of the Bhima and Krishna rivers in Yadgir and Shorapur taluks.	Irrigated or rain-fed chillies, jowar, cotton and pulses.

Land Utilisation

Out of a total area of 39,29,947 acres, 31,29,243 acres had been utilised for growing various crops during 1962-63. The following table indicates the extent to which land was used for farming in the various taluks of the district during that year :—

Taluk	*Geographical area* (in acres)	*Net area sown* (in acres)
Gulbarga	4,20,512	3,20,316
Chittapur	4,22,714	3,47,925
Yadgir	4,19,949	3,11,611
Shahapur	3,96,940	3,33,915
Shorapur	4,38,936	3,16,714
Jevargi	4,46,453	3,92,737
Afzalpur	3,20,248	2,83,541
Aland	4,27,567	3,56,643
Chincholi	3,82,648	2,64,171
Seram	2,53,980	2,01,670
Total	39,29,947	31,29,243

Cultivable Waste Land.—According to a survey conducted during 1962-63, there were in all 92,488 acres of cultivable waste land in the entire district. The details of the cultivable waste are indicated below :—

Gulbarga	..	10,280 acres
Chittapur	..	25,600 „
Yadgir	..	9,282 „
Shahapur	..	6,715 „
Shorapur	..	7,754 „
Jevargi	..	6,296 „
Aland	..	6,322 „
Afzalpur	..	4,437 „
Chincholi	..	14,690 „
Seram	..	1,103 „
Total	..	92,488 acres

The extent of cultivable waste is more in Chittapur, Gulbarga and Chincholi taluks and less in other taluks. Efforts are being made to reclaim these waste-lands as far as possible, to grow more

food grains. Some portions have been given to Lambanis and other backward communities for cultivation.

Rainfall

The climate of the district is pleasant and agreeable during the post-monsoon months and also in winter. The maximum and minimum temperature ordinarily is 105.1°F and 78.6°F, respectively. There are three distinct seasons, namely, the winter from the beginning of October to the end of January, summer from February to the end of June and rainy season upto the end of September. In the pre-monsoon months, *i.e.*, February to March, the temperature goes on rising and continues so till the end of May. The south-west monsoon sets in the second week of June. The average rainfall of the district is 28.17 inches or 715.5 millimetres. The rains in Gulbarga district are not evenly spread. As most of the soil is of black cotton type, rainfall is required occasionally or else the soils cannot retain enough moisture for rabi or *hingari* crops. Sometimes continuous rains make interculture of kharif crops impossible as weeds grow rapidly. Fields are ploughed up and exposed to the sun. It is of interest to note that rabi sowings are delayed due to rains. If there is sufficient moisture, the rabi crops come up very well. Generally, crops are harvested in the months of February to March. Most of the cultivated area is under dry-farming methods. Unassured and scanty rainfall is the main disadvantage for cultivators.

Soil Conservation

Due to the peculiar nature of rainfall and the character of the soil, considerable erosion of soil and loss of moisture are noticed in dry tracts. The problems posed in such an area relate to conservation of the soil and the protection of the moisture for periodical tillage operations. The contour bunds constructed on catchment basis at suitable distances from ridge to valley not only save the soil from erosion but also conserve moisture. Till the end of the Second Five-Year Plan, 5,081 acres of land were bunded at a cost of Rs. 1,49,711. During the Third Plan period, 10,000 acres of land were to be bunded at a cost of Rs. 6.38 lakhs. The maintenance of contour bunds in good condition is as important as their construction, if they are to serve the purpose for which they are constructed. The adoption of suitable dry farming practices in such bunded areas along with the maintenance of bunds go a long way in increasing agricultural production. Large areas which were once under cultivation have got into disuse due to the development of alkalinity and acidity. In order to reclaim such lands, a subsidy of Rs. 50 per acre was being given during the Third Plan period. Under this scheme it was expected to reclaim 2,000 acres of alkaline and acid soils by the end of the Third Plan period at an estimated cost of Rs. 1.16 lakhs.

Agricultural Seasons

There are two distinct seasons for farming practices in the Gulbarga district, *viz.*, kharif and rabi. The kharif season commences at the end of June when sowing is done. The sowing continues upto the middle of July. The kharif crops are harvested during September The rabi season, which is very important for sowing rabi jowar, commences after the middle of September. The crops are harvested in January. The rabi season is particularly important for a majority of cultivators in the district because after the south-west monsoon showers, there is a noteworthy moisture retention which is considered good for jowar cultivation.

Land-Holdings

What constitutes an economic holding is different in different regions, according to the soil, crops and price of saleable produce. An economic holding is one which not only maintains an average family of a cultivator but is also sufficient enough in area to give him and his pair of bullocks maximum work. The Mysore Tenancy Agricultural Land Laws Committee Report (1958) gives the following details of land-holdings in respect of the Gulbarga district :—

Category		*Holdings*	*Area in acres*
Below five acres	..	54,018	1,50,407
Five to ten acres	..	49,866	3,67,679
10 to 15 acres	..	33,697	4,13,615
15 to 30 acres	..	47,280	9,98,045
30 to 45 acres	..	16,191	5,83,697
45 to 60 acres	..	6,368	3,27,529
60 to 75 acres	..	2,963	1,95,084
75 to 100 acres	..	2,300	1,95,469
100 to 150 acres	..	1,444	1,71,625
150 to 200 acres	..	325	54,280
200 to 300 acres	..	174	41,907
300 to 500 acres	..	88	32,039
500 to 1,000 acres	..	37	25,290
Above 1,000 acres	..	10	24,757

Thus in all, there were 2,14,761 holdings in the district during that year, (*i.e.*, 1958) covering an area of about 35.8 lakh acres. The distribution of land-holdings cannot be uniform because of the law of inheritance, where fragmentation cannot be avoided. It is significant from the table given above that large holdings of over a thousand acres are quite small in number and holdings below five acres are the most numerous.

Irrigation

The present sources of irrigation in the district are wells, tanks and natural streams. The uncertainty of a well-distributed rainfall has highlighted the importance of artificial methods of irrigation. There are a number of tanks in the district but in most of them, the supply of water diminishes rapidly or fails entirely after the end of the rainy season. The net area irrigated in the entire district utilising the waters of tanks, Government canals, private canals, wells and other sources was 38,244 acres in 1963-64. A large portion of this acreage was irrigated by wells, covering a total area of 21,321 acres. A total of 16,271 acres was under tanks and the rest came under other sources of irrigation. There were in all 4,198 irrigation wells in the district. The following table indicates the extent of acreage under well irrigation arranged taluk-wise (1963-64):—

Gulbarga	..	3,554	acres
Chittapur	..	800	„
Yadgir	..	974	„
Shahapur	..	2,241	„
Shorapur	..	123	„
Jevargi	.	333	„
Afzalpur	..	2,397	„
Aland	.	10,074	„
Chincholi	..	332	„
Seram	..	443	„
Total	..	21,321	„

Water in these wells is found at a depth of 30 to 35 feet from the ground level and the wells have a diameter of 15 to 20 feet. There are no big wells anywhere in the district. Lift irrigation is quite popular in the area and the water is lifted by leather moats with a pulley attached. The well-to-do cultivators use oil engine pumps to lift water for irrigation.

Tanks

Gulbarga district has a large number of tanks which serve as sources of irrigation. These tanks generally get their water supply by drainage from a catchment area. The size of the tank is dependent on its catchment area. According to figures furnished by the Revenue Department, in 1964-65, there were in all 210 tanks in the district with a command area of 16,271 acres. Out of this area under tank irrigation, Yadgir taluk alone accounted for 11,982 acres, the highest in the district. Shahapur taluk came next with 1,746 acres followed by Seram with 1,393 acres. Only 446 acres were irrigated by tanks in Chittapur taluk. The following is the

list of major tanks in the district with their atchkat areas in acres :—

Kaloor tank	..	125 acres
Nidagunda	..	121 ,,
Oora tank at Itgal		149 ,,
Oora tank at Mudhol	..	100 ,,
Rama tank	..	116 ,,
Nala Katwa	..	110 ,,
Hundarki tank	..	126 ,,
Boothpur tank	..	121 ,,
Amal Sani Cheru	..	154 ,,

Minor Tanks

The atchkat area of any minor tank has never exceeded 100 acres anywhere in the district. Among the more important minor tanks are the Papance tank at Miryan (59-39 acres), Itga large tank (71 acres), Nalwar tank (87-19 acres), Kallur tank (52-09 acres), Ramapurahalli tank (75-28 acres), Kardal Nala (35-22 acres), Upalwat tank in Chittapur (79-29 acres), Devi tank (70 00 acres), Parameshwar tank in Nadpalli (79-14 acres), Fareed Sagar (65-05 acres), Nalakunta (55-19 acres), Narasappa tank (84-17 acres), Gurdom Katwa (62-19 acres), Oora tank in Kodla (91-36 acres), Gaon tank (82-03 acres), Guchi Katwa (85 acres), Purna tank (78-30 acres) and Maya tank (96-37 acres). The Harsoor tank in Gulbarga taluk is a minor tank having a command area of 34-34 acres. All these minor tanks are found in Chincholi, Gulbarga and Chittapur taluks. Both the major and minor tanks are managed by the Revenue Department which lets out water for irrigation purposes under specified laws. Generally, the irrigation of fields is done by flow irrigation and where this is not feasible, lift irrigation is adopted by making use of leather moats.

Irrigation Pump Sets.—During 1960-61, there were 292 irrigation pump sets, covering 1,600 acres of land in the entire district. This number rose up to 1,240 during 1965, of which 25 were electrical pump sets and the rest were diesel oil pump sets.

Irrigation Wells

As in other districts, minor irrigation plays an important part in the Gulbarga district also. Several schemes under the successive Five-Year Plans are broadly divided into two categories. The first category consists of schemes which are intended to help individual persons, whereas the second category aims at benefiting several cultivators collectively. Sinking of irrigation wells is an important item of work under minor irrigation, particularly in a dry district like Gulbarga, where major irrigation projects have yet to be taken up for utilising the river waters. During the period from 1960 to 1965, 3,950 irrigation wells were sanctioned for this district of which nearly 1,500 wells had been actually completed irrigating an area of about 4,150 acres and 1,530 more wells were

in different stages of progress as at the end of 1965. The cultivators are given financial assistance to the extent of Rs. 3,000 per well, out of which a sum of Rs. 500 is treated as subsidy and the balance as loan. The second scheme under minor irrigation is well-boring. At present, well-boring activities are confined to drinking water wells and these are executed by the Public Works Department. In view of the limited number of men and materials available in the Public Works Department, it is not in a position to extend its facilities for irrigation purposes. Hence it is proposed to launch a scheme under the Agricultural Engineering Section to help the cultivators in putting up test-bores for digging irrigation wells, to augment the water supply of the existing wells by deepening the wells and also to sink new bore-wells for irrigation purposes. The scheme of supplying electric pump sets on hire-purchase system which was started during the Second Plan period was continued during the Third Plan also so as to extend irrigation facilities to the farmers. It had been proposed under the Third Plan to supply power to 150 irrigation pump sets at a cost of rupees seven lakhs of which 76 pump sets had already been supplied with power till October, 1965. As it has not been possible to supply electricity to many places, it is proposed to continue the supply of diesel oil pumps on hire-purchase basis.

Several other minor irrigation schemes such as construction of storage tanks, percolation tanks, anicuts, pick-ups and bandharas all aimed at benefiting the farmers collectively, were taken up under the Third Plan programme, in various parts of the district. Of these, 45 anicuts and 11 tank-works were in various stages of progress during the year 1965-66. The following statement indicates the number of works in progress in each of the taluks and the area that is expected to be irrigated :—

Name of Taluk		*Anicut works*	*Tank works*	*Area to be benefited (in acres)*
Gulbarga	..	7	2	1,156
Aland	..	2	2	1,253
Afzalpur	..	13	..	805
Chittapur	..	3	..	235
Seram	..	9	3	2,469
Chincholi	..	3	3	1,214
Shorapur	..	5	..	534
Yadgir	..	2	..	70
Jevargi	..	1	1	690
Total	..	45	11	8,426

Major Irrigation Schemes

There are some important rivers flowing in the Gulbarga district, which when fully harnessed will, no doubt, change the face of the district and make it prosperous. The important rivers in the district are the Krishna, Bhima, Kagna, Amerja, Bennithora, Bori and Mullamari. The Hattikuni stream in Yadgir taluk has already been harnessed and the work is in progress by stages. The scheme which is under way is the construction of a reservoir across the Hattikuni stream. When completed, the storage in the reservoir will command an area of 5,300 acres. Several major and medium irrigation schemes are under contemplation.

Upper Krishna Project

The Upper Krishna Project, which is a major irrigational venture in the State, proposes to harness the waters of the river Krishna to irrigate large areas in Gulbarga district. This mighty undertaking envisages the construction of two storage reservoirs on the river, one at Almatti in Bagewadi taluk of Bijapur district and the other at Siddapur in Muddebihal taluk of the same district.

The river Krishna has a total drainage area of about 97,000 square miles, out of which about 45,000 square miles lie in Mysore State. In order to harness the irrigational potentialities of this mighty water resource for the benefit of extensive areas in Bijapur, Raichur and Gulbarga districts, the Upper Krishna Project was first mooted in 1960. The project was further examined in 1963. Originally, the second storage dam site was decided to be constructed at Narayanpur in Gulbarga district. But later inspections and technical scrutiny gave rise to a change in the location. It was decided to locate the second storage dam at Siddapur about four miles upstream from Narayanpur. This new dam site lies in Bijapur district, but the benefits will acrue to the cultivators in Gulbarga district. Preliminary works connected with the project are under way.

Chandrampalli Project.—This project envisages the construction of an earthen dam across the Sarnalla stream which is a tributary of the Mullamari river near Chandrampalli village in Chincholi taluk. The impounding capacity of the reservoir is 767 MC ft. With the right and the left bank canals of six and a half and seven miles in length, respectively, it is proposed to irrigate an area of 12,500 acres in Chincholi taluk. Work on this project is in progress.

Bhima River Schemes.—Two major schemes are contemplated in the district to harness the water potential of the Bhima river. These are: (1) the Bhima irrigation scheme and (2) the Bhima lift irrigation scheme. In the Bhima irrigation scheme, it is proposed to construct a reservoir across the Bhima river near Thangadgi village in Shahapur taluk. The catchment area at the dam site has been worked out with a yield of 556 TMC feet. Two

canals, one on each bank, will irrigate one lakh acres in Gulbarga district. The Bhima lift irrigation scheme envisages the construction of a storage reservoir across the Bhima river near Afzalpur to lift water by means of pumps, jack well and rising mains to irrigate another one lakh acres.

Amerja River Project.—The Amerja river project envisages the construction of a dam across the Amerja river near Sangulgi village in Aland taluk. The catchment area is about 205 square miles at the dam site. Canals will be constructed on both the banks to irrigate an area of 15,500 acres.

Bennithora Project.—There is a proposal to construct three irrigation works across the Bennithora river and its tributaries to bring under irrigation a total area of 72,800 acres. The first site is situated across the river near Savalgi village in Aland taluk. The catchment area at the dam site is 462 square miles. Two canals to be taken out from the reservoir will irrigate an area of 30,000 acres. The second site is situated across the Gandori stream which is a tributary of the Bennithora river near Ambalga village in Gulbarga taluk. The catchment area at the site is about 100 square miles. The canal on the left bank will irrigate 12,800 acres. The third and the last is located across the Bennithora river near Kansur village in Chittapur taluk. Two canals to be taken out will irrigate an area of 30,000 acres.

Mullamari Project.—The Mullamari river project contemplates the construction of a reservoir across the Mullamari river near Karakmukki village in Chincholi taluk. The catchment area at the reservoir site is 325 square miles. A right bank canal has been envisaged to bring under irrigation an area of 24,200 acres.

Mudhol Project.—This project as now contemplated envisages the construction of an earthen dam across the Mudhol stream — a tributary to the Kagna river at a site near Rajoli Khurd village in Seram taluk. The canal on the left flank will irrigate an area of about 1,400 acres of seasonal crops in Seram taluk.

Kagna Project.—This project envisages the construction of a diversion work across the river Kagna near Yadhalli village in Seram taluk. The right and left bank canals will irrigate an area of 20,000 acres of seasonal crops in Seram and Chittapur taluks.

Indankal Tank Project.—This scheme, as envisaged now, comprises an earthen dam across the Muchkula nala, a tributary of Kagna river at a site near Indankal village in Chittapur taluk. The scheme is likely to benefit an area of 4,400 acres in Chittapur taluk.

Forestry

It was in 1867 that the Forest Department was created in Hyderabad State. Till 1912, this department was under the management of non-technical men. During the first two decades after 1867, some of the valuable forest species were declared as reserved trees and the work of the department was confined to protecting the species under the control of the revenue authorities. During 1900-1901, a Forest Act was promulgated with the main object of developing the forest wealth. After 1912, the department was reorganised and staffed with trained technical personnel. The jurisdiction of the present Gulbarga Forest Division includes Bidar district also. Forest areas in Gulbarga district are found in Gulbarga, Yadgir, Shahapur, Chincholi and Seram taluks. Some taluks like Afzalpur and Jevargi have no forests at all. Due to working plan operations some area in Aland taluk has been afforested in recent years. According to the statistics furnished by the Divisional Forest Officer, the extent of forests in each taluk in 1964-65 was as given below:—

Taluk	*Areas*
Gulbarga	12,255
Chittapur	6,623
Yadgir	57,549
Shahapur	4,799
Shorapur	13,430
Jevargi	..
Afzalpur	..
Aland	4,326
Chincholi	70,087
Seram	1,936
Total	1,71,005

The percentage of forests to the total geographical area works out roughly to about four per cent in the district. The National Forest Policy stipulates that at least 33 1/3 per cent of the land area should be under forests. The percentage of Gulbarga falls very short of this minimum. There are some fairly large tracts of barren area in charge of the Revenue Department under revenue waste and *gairanas* (grazing land). If these areas are afforested according to a phased programme, the percentage of forests may be increased. The rainfall in the area is very low, varying between 20 to 30 inches. The heavy exploitations in the past have made the area barren resulting in heavy denudations exposing the rock below. The first step towards improving these conditions would be to stop the soil erosion by means of contour trenching and afforestation. If this is done systematically and regularly and the land covered with some vegetation, grass would grow in the areas thus improving the grazing position and raising the water level.

The forests in the district are dry, tropical thorny forests which are in a depleted condition because of heavy fellings and

unscientific management in the past. During the last eight or nine years, a systematic working plan was drawn up and the implementation of this policy has shown some improvement. The main forest trees are the teak, satin, tirman, mhowa, sundra, dindal and bijasal. The forests are divided into three categories, *viz*., the mixed teak forest, mixed firewood forest and the dry scrub forest. The mixed teak is a typical tropical dry, deciduous teak covering an area of about 15,000 acres. The teak compares well with the all-India quality. The main teak forests are found mostly in Chincholi range. The mixed fuel forests are the tropical, deciduous forests without teak, yielding mostly firewood with an occasional sandalwood. The main species are satin, sundra, tugli and a little of anjan. These are found in several taluks of the district. The dry scrub forests are rocky forests with thorny scrub with stunted tree growth. These forests yield minor forest produce. The major forest produce comprises constructional timber of pole size and also of firewood. Sandalwood which formed a major forest produce before 1948 was fully exploited. The crop that was left after exploitation is quite young and it will take some time before sandalwood is exploited as a major forest produce. The main tree species which yield timber are teak, satin and tirman. The main forest products are beedi leaves, mohwa flowers, guic rousa grass, fodder grasses, bhilawan, soapnut seethapal, gum, honey, wax and fruits. The revenue realised from the Gulbarga Forest Division during 1960-65 is given below* :

Year		*Revenue*	
		Rs.	
1960-61	..	4,07,506-69	These figures include revenues from the forests of Raichur and Bidar districts also.
1961-62	..	4,06,615-74	
1962-63	..	3,45,137-18	These figures include revenues from the forests of Bidar district also.
1963-64	..	3,36,802-06	
1964-65	..	3,13,918-35	

Roughly, about fifty per cent of the revenue is realised from the sale of timber and firewood, while the rest comes from minor forest produce. The timber and fuel forests are worked under a systematic working plan. This plan is drawn up by

*Till the end of March 1961 the Gulbarga Forest Division included the forests of Bidar and Raichur districts as well. After 31st March 1961 the Raichur district forests were separated from the Gulbarga Division. The Bidar district forests, however, continue to be under the Gulbarga Forest Division.

experienced technical personnel and the Chief Conservator of Forests. The Inspector-General of Forests, Government of India, finalises the policy to be pursued. The working plan prescriptions vary with the actual requirements noticed from time to time. Some experiments are being carried out locally to improve the quality of tanning bark species, medicinal plants and the like. On the strength of the achievements of research, further developments are likely to take place. In course of time, forestry in the district would be put on a sure foundation. There is large scope for lac industry, and for improvements in tanning products. The prescriptions of the working plan are being implemented regularly and the results show that there is a sustained supply of timber and firewood in the district. The existing stock is also likely to improve in quality in the coming years. From the year 1962, the 'Rab' system has been introduced in the coupes worked in the previous years. Under this system, the fallen debris—*i.e.*, the unwanted stuff left by the contractors—is collected in patches of 33' × 33' or multiples thereof and burnt and this area known as the 'Rab' is stacked and planted with teak stumps.

During the Second Plan period, a total area of 2,819 acres of new forest plantations was raised. There were several schemes under way in Third Plan period. Under the pasture improvement scheme, some improvements were being effected in grazing areas. Cashew, being an important commercial crop, a well thought out scheme for developing cashew plantations is being implemented in the district. The plantation of this species is proposed to be raised on an extensive scale. Under the forest consolidation scheme, district forest un-reserves which were managed by the Revenue Department were to be handed over to the Forest Department.

There are no research centres or forest schools in Gulbarga. In the adjoining district of Bidar, the Forest Department has raised a demonstration plot near the District Offices, where the hill slopes are contour-trenched and afforested with firewood and timber. This plot is serving as a pilot demonstration centre for the public. The forest staff in the district consists of rangers, foresters and guards. The higher officers and the rangers are trained at Dehra Dun and Coimbatore, respectively. The foresters who work in the district are trained at Dandeli in North Kanara district, while the guards get their training in Bidar and Kushalnagar in Coorg district.

The following table indicates the acreages under different principal crops in Gulbarga district, during the year 1963-64 :— **Principal crops**

Paddy	..	..	58,990 acres
Kharif Jowar	..	..	2,27,389 ,,
Rabi Jowar	..	..	13,17,964 ,,
Bajra	..	..	2,51,501 ,,
Maize	..	..	580 ,,
Ragi	..	..	8,946 ,,
Wheat	..	..	57,811 ,,
Barley	..	..	461 ,,
Gram	..	..	56,354 ,,
Other millets	..	..	1,39,717 ,,
Tur Dhal	..	..	2,47,158 ,,
Cotton	..	..	1,81,111 ,,
Groundnut	..	..	2,04,482 ,,
Sesamum	..	..	36,815 ,,
Mustard	..	..	537 ,,
Linseed	..	..	42,811 ,,
Castor	..	..	1,066 ,,
Onions	..	..	1,863 ,,
Chillies	..	..	24,205 ,,

It is relevant at this stage to give the figures of actual production as furnished by the District Agricultural Office. The figures relate to the year 1962-63 :—

Paddy		..	8,858 tons
Kharif Jowar	..	..	23,210 ,,
Rabi Jowar	..	..	1,62,462 ,,
Wheat	..	..	5,998 ,,
Bajra	..	..	11,968 ,,
Barley	..	..	85 ,,
Maize	..	..	48 ,,
Ragi	..	..	1,928 ,,
Green Gram	..	..	5,886 ,,
Tur Dhal	..	..	25,870 ,,
Black Gram	..	..	3,063 ,,
Horse Gram	..	..	993 ,,
Sugarcane	..	..	2,972 ,,
Groundnut	..	..	57,908 ,,
Cotton	..	..	13,034 ,,
Linseed	..	..	4,147 ,,
Castor	..	..	109 ,,
Tobacco	..	..	197 ,,
Chillies	..	..	1,589 ,,
Sesamum	..	..	2,847 ,,
Little Millets	..	..	1,912 ,,
Other Millets	..	..	3,466 ,,
Turmeric	..	..	79 ,,

Modes of Cultivation

The farming practice prevalent among the cultivators in Gulbarga district is based on tradition. This time-honoured tradition has not much changed; however, scientific methods of agriculture are becoming popular among the well-to-do agriculturists. The general practice that is being followed in the district is to grow only one crop in a year. The usual rotations that are common are kharif jowar, tur and groundnut with rabi jowar at the end. Paddy is usually rotated with gram. Mixed cropping is also common. Various pulses, oil seeds and fibre plants are generally grown as mixed crops, *e.g.*, kharif jowar and groundnut tur and groundnut, kharif jowar and tur, safflower and Deccan hemp with rabi jowar. The traditional methods like bunding, carting farm yard manure and using leguminous crops in rotation are adopted with a view to increasing the fertility of the soil. The use of synthetic manure is on the increase.

After the harvest of rabi crops, the land is ploughed only after examining whether the field has any moisture and whether it is soft enough for using the plough. Otherwise, the cultivator waits for some casual rains and, if the expected precipitation occurs, he then ploughs the field and harrows it once or twice. Then, farm-yard manure is applied to the soil. This is usually done once in three to four years. After these preparations, kharif crops are generally sown only after good rains are received in the second or third week of June. The sowings are continued upto the middle of July. Kharif crops are harvested in the month of October, with the exception of tur which is harvested in December. There are some crops which are harvested earlier like mung dhal (green gram) and some varieties of groundnut. Irrigated paddy is transplanted usually in August as the tanks become full only at that time.

Rabi lands are harrowed at least two to three times during the monsoon months. The rabi sowings start generally from the month of October and the crops are harvested in the month of March and completed by the end of April. In some places in the district, double crops are also raised in a year, particularly paddy under tank beds. The mode of cultivation of important crops in the district is discussed in the following paragraphs :—

Jowar

Jowar (Sorghum vulgare)—*Jola*—is the most important cereal and at the same time the largest and most widely grown crop in Gulbarga district, having 15,45,353 acres under both kharif and rabi sowings (1963-64). The cultivation of jowar is carried on in

all the taluks of the district, the extent of acreage being as follows (1962-63) :—

Taluk			*Kharif* (*in acres*)	*Rabi*
Gulbarga	..	..	6,126	1,66,526
Chittapur	..	..	11,331	1,84,241
Yadgir	..	..	18,420	1,08,994
Shahapur	..	..	34,264	1,34,265
Shorapur	..	..	67,834	86,693
Jevargi	..	..	21,627	2,19,914
Afzalpur	..	..	..	1,58,425
Aland	..	..	832	1,67,448
Chincholi	..	..	10,947	84,498
Seram	..	..	3,145	98,985

Out of a total of 31,29,243 acres sown with food and other crops in the district, the jowar acreage alone is nearly half of the cropped area. As a food crop, it is better than rice, as the grain contains more proteins, while it also has more starch than wheat. The grain is chiefly used for preparing unleavened cakes, which form the principal food of the people. Jowar is equally important for fodder and it is perhaps no exaggeration to say that of all the plants yielding fodder, jowar probably stands first in being capable, under a great variety of conditions, of producing a very large quantity of palatable fodder in a minimum of time. The distribution of the crop is regulated by the amount and distribution of rainfall, but the depth and character of the soil play an equally important part. In parts of Gulbarga where the soils are shallow, jowar gives place to bajra. Jowar is essentially a crop of deep and heavier soils, while the best results are obtained in places with an average rainfall of 25 to 40 inches. Various pulses, oil seeds and fibre plants are generally grown mixed with kharif jowar. The best jowar is grown on black soil, sometimes in rotation with cotton, but the crop does particularly well on the deep alluvial soils. The kharif jowar in Gulbarga district is generally sown in June as soon as the land is sufficiently moistened. The crop matures in four-and-half months but when grown for fodder alone, it is cut in three months. Rabi jowar which occupies a prominent place in Gulbarga, is sown with drill in September or October and is harvested in February or March. The success of this crop depends upon a deep moisture-retaining soil and late rainfall.

The best varieties of jowar are grown extensively in the district besides improved varieties like Baswan moti, Chittapur white etc. The average yield of jowar per acre comes to about 500 lbs. for the kharif dry and 550 lbs. for the rabi crop. Under proper irrigation, the yield comes to about 1,500 to 2,000 lbs. per acre.

The average yield of fodder per acre in addition to the grain comes to about 1,700 lbs. The normal proportion of grain to fodder is about 1 to 2.5. The improved varieties of jowar which are quite popular in the district are the P. J4. R., which is a selection from Parbhani in Maharashtra State and M. 35-I (rabi), also a selection from Mohol Farm in Maharashtra State. The P. J4. R. variety is sown during September-October and harvested after 120 to 130 days and yields about 900 to 1,100 lbs. The sowing period of M. 35-1 variety is also the same; but it is most suitable for drought conditions. These improved varieties are adaptable to a variety of soils and are drought-resistant.

Cultivation.—Gulbarga district is a tract that has scanty and uncertain rainfall. As the rainfall is very ill-distributed, the conservation of moisture is of paramount importance. As a result of these handicaps, dry farming practices are prevalent in the entire area as per the results of research undertaken on the Government Agricultural Farm, Raichur, and the Agricultural Research Station, Hagari, in Bellary district. The jowar fields get a preparatory tillage before the actual sowings commence. For jowar fields, contour bunding and contour cultivation become necessary so as to prevent soil erosion. In the medium deep and deep black cotton soils, a thorough deep ploughing once in three years is resorted to. This method of deep ploughing brings lower soil to the surface and facilitates the eradication of deep rooted perennial weeds like *hariyali*. Immediately after the harvest, if conditions permit, the plots are ploughed by a light plough crosswise and the field is then allowed to remain in the sun for drying, during summer months. After the summer showers, the clods in the field crumble down. At this stage, the field is harrowed thoroughly. In order to conserve soil moisture and to keep off the weeds, the fields are harrowed after each shower. After the ploughing and harrowing, five to six cart-loads of farm-yard manure or compost per acre are evenly spread and mixed into the soil by means of harrowing. In Gulbarga district, the fertiliser dose recommended is 12 lbs of N and 8 lbs. of P_2O_5 per acre with the usual farm-yard manure dosage. This manurial application is made just three to four weeks before the actual sowing and mixed into the soil by means of harrowing. Under irrigated conditions, double the manurial dose is recommended. The recommended variety of jowar for Gulbarga area is M. 35-I which is a rabi variety. This is a drought-resistant variety which has a loose type of earhead with bold pearly white grains. This variety which is very popular throughout the district matures within four months and yields on an average 500 lbs. per acre, apart from 1,500 to 2,000 lbs. of straw which is a bit hard. Besides, there is another variety, M. 47-3, which is a further improvement on M. 35-I, the straw of which is soft and palatable and which yields earlier than M. 35-1.

In kharif, the D. 340 variety is recommended. It is a selection from Pulmadi evolved in the Dhadesugur farm in Raichur district. The grain of this jowar is pale white and the fodder is sweet and juicy. The yield is about 1,000 to 1,200 lbs. per acre under rainfed conditions.

The time of sowing varies from tract to tract depending on the distribution of rainfall. The cultivators in Gulbarga district start sowing earlier in light soils than in black soil. The seed rate per acre also varies from place to place. It is very important to regulate the distribution of seed in the line. Large gap or over-crowding reduces the yield considerably. As a measure of precaution, the seed distribution is done by skilled persons who see to it that the seed is sown uniformly, methodically and carefully. Sowing is carried out with a three or four-coultered drill. A gap of 12 inches is allowed between two plants in the line. Wherever possible, dibbling is adopted to get ten to fifteen per cent more yield. The spacings of jowar in Gulbarga are 15 inches to 18 inches and if dibbling is done, the spacings are exceeded by another three inches. Ordinarily four to five seeds are dibbled at each spot. The seeds are dibbled in a circular way at each spot and later, weak seedlings are taken out, keeping one or two healthy seedlings at a spot.

In order to get a good jowar crop, improved manurial application is practised widely in the area. Jowar being a fibrous rooted plant, it responds well to manuring. About five cart-loads of farm-yard manure or compost are applied per acre. As it is difficult to get enough manure to cover all the area, manuring is done by rotation. The soils in Gulbarga being deficient both in nitrogen and phosporus, plant nutrients applied in proper quantities increase the yield. For kharif jowar, fertilizers are applied in two doses, first at the time of sowing and the second about one to one and a half months later. For rabi sowings, the fertilizer is applied only at the sowing time. For irrigated jowar, it is applied in two doses. The fertilizer is placed one inch to one and a half inches deep in the soil and three inches to four inches away from the crop line where the roots are concentrated. Immediately after top-dressing, inter-cultivation is carried out with the blade-hoe so as to cover the furrows opened by the top-dressing implement.

Threshing.—For threshing jowar earheads, stone rollers are used in this region. This helps by way of saving time and also labour. About 5,000 lbs. of earheads can be threshed by stone rollers employing two men and two bullocks in three hours. If the threshing is done by treading under the feet of the bullocks, more time is required.

Insect Pests of Jowar.—Agricultural crops, as they are being raised in the fields, are liable to be damaged by insect pests. As

a result of these attacks, the yield may be reduced considerably. The major insect pests of jowar are (1) the jowar stem-borer, (2) the army worm, (3) the Deccan wingless grasshopper, (4) the surface grasshoper, (5) jowar shoot bug, (6) jowar stem fly and (7) mites. The stem borer caterpillar is half to three-fourth inch long with a dark brown head. It is found inside the affected stems. The caterpillar bores into the growing stem from the top downwards and causes the drying of the central shoot. Such dried shoots are popularly called dead hearts. The drying of the plant is later accompanied by reddening of stems. The activity of the pest is visible in the field from July to December on kharif jowar and November to February on rabi jowar. In the early stages of infestation, the affected plants are pulled out with the caterpillars and promptly destroyed. Chemical measures have not yet proved effective in checking this pest. The army worm has a life cycle of five to six weeks. This pest is active on the jowar crop from June to October. It is observed that when a long dry spell follows a good start of monsoon, this pest assumes an epidemic form. If there are heavy rains, the activity of the pest is much reduced. If the attack is located, the caterpillars are collected and destroyed. Recently, insecticidal measures have been found effective.

The Deccan wingless grasshopper which is considered as the worst enemy of a robust jowar plant attacks it from June to December. These insects have only one generation in a year. The cultivators are quite familiar with the mode of controlling this infestation. The egg masses are destroyed by ploughing and harrowing the affected fields, especially along the bunds soon after the harvest. The surface grasshoppers are the same as the Deccan wingless grasshopper. The jowar leaf and shoot bugs are active in the field from July to October on kharif jowar and during November to February on rabi crops. The pest completes a number of generations during the season and builds up a sizable population. It shows a tendency to subside if heavy rains occur during the kharif season. The pest is easily controlled by spraying insecticides. The jowar stem fly attacks young seedlings in large numbers. The infested plants show dead hearts in the early stages. The pest is active from July to September on kharif jowar and November to December on rabi jowar. In order to control this infestation, the seed rate is increased to make up the loss. The jowar mites generally feed on the underside of leaves. The infested leaves turn red and get gradually straw-coloured. In cases of heavy attack, the leaves and stalks get dried up. The affected area is treated with sulphur and thereby the infestation is reduced.

The common diseases of the jowar crop are the grain smut, loose smut, head smut, long smut, rust, red leaf spot, downy mildew, sugury disease, striga and hollow stem. Since the majority of diseases are seed borne, it is effectively controlled by

pre-treatment of seeds with sulphur. The infected leaves are collected and destroyed.

Paddy (Oryza sativa)—*Bhatta*—is grown in all the taluks of the district to a greater or lesser degree. The area under paddy in the entire district in 1963-64 was 58,990 acres. **Paddy**

The popular varieties of paddy usually grown in the district are the H.R. 35 and H.R. 19 which are selections from *Kichidi Sanna* and *Amritsari*. The H.R. 35 is rabi variety with late maturing. This is harvested after 170 to 180 days of sowing. The rice from this paddy is fine and takes a good polish. This variety is grown in rich soils, yielding 3,500 to 4,000 lbs. per acre. The H.R. 19 variety is a medium selection from the *Amritsari* variety grown in the Punjab. This is harvested after 120 to 130 days. The H.R. 19 variety is very popular in Gulbarga and Yadgir taluks, yielding 2,500 to 3,000 lbs. per acre. In addition to these improved varieties, the cultivators in Gulbarga also grow coarse and very coarse varieties of paddy, which are locally called Tekusannal, Mota, Konamani, Ramasagar, Akati, Kusuma, Masral, Kaladhan, Gutkal, Garkal and Deshi Mota. All these varieties are grown both as Abi and Tabi crops. (Abi is the autumn or monsoon crop and Tabi is the summer crop). The proportion between Abi and Tabi is four to one. Some of these coarse and very coarse varieties of paddy yield early and some yield late. The early varieties ripen in 90 to 120 days and the late varieties in 120 to 180 days. As a food grain, rice is not equal either to jowar or bajra, as it is starchy and somewhat deficient in fat and proteins. These deficiencies give it, however, excellent keeping quality in hot, humid climate. As a fodder crop also, it is far inferior to jowar both in quality and quantity of the straw. The seed rate of paddy in Gulbarga is 80 lbs. per acre if broadcasted and 42 to 50 lbs. if transplanted.

Paddy freely responds to manuring. For successful cultivation, a good and constant supply of water is absolutely essential. This is best secured by having level plots with proper embankments. This levelling is brought about by a very skilful and elaborate process of terracing according to the contour of the land. This method of terracing the paddy fields prevents scouring and enables the small plots to hold evenly fair depths of water all over the field. As paddy thrives in damp soil, abundant water is required for irrigation. Most of the irrigated paddy fields in the district are fed by tank water. The Chemistry Division of the Agricultural Department has conducted valuable investigation bearing on the aspects of the optimum soil conditions for paddy-growing and the manurial requirements under different conditions for improvement of crop yields. In fact, along with the development of high yielding varieties, the application of manures to the paddy crop as a direct means of enhancing the crop yields has been

one of the more important lines of work. As is well known, paddy is a crop which thrives in the warm humid climate of the tropics under abundant rainfall or irrigation facilities. In Gulbarga, as explained already, a considerable part of the acreage under paddy is irrigated. The paddy crop is semi-aquatic in nature; it is necessary to make a special study of the soil conditions and behaviour of the plant. Paddy is grown under a variety of soil and climatic conditions and the major deciding factor is the availability of a continuous supply of water throughout the life period of the crop. The trap soils found in Gulbarga are best suited to paddy growth. The mixed red and black soil in some areas also affords opportunities for paddy cultivation.

Cultivation.—The method of paddy cultivation varies in certain respects from one tract to another due to various soil types, rainfall and seasonal conditions obtaining in that particular area. The lands are terraced and bunded to facilitate impounding and to maintain equal distribution of water all over the plot. Each such plot is provided with an outlet to allow excess water to flow away. The size of the plot varies from a few guntas to about ¼th of an acre depending on the situation of the plot, topography and gradient. These terraces are fed by water coming from the high lands. The soils on high lands are poor and less retentive of moisture. Generally, such lands do not have tank irrigation facilities and so, the early yielding varieties are grown. In low lands, there is always water for a longer period and the soils are also retentive. So the late varieties are grown in such lands. Ploughing of paddy fields is done soon after the harvest, except in the low-lying areas where it is done after a month when the soils become workable. Ploughing is done early with a view to facilitating the subsequent operations quickly. Otherwise soils would go hard and cannot be ploughed until sufficient rains are received. Ploughing in Gulbarga is done by using the traditional wooden plough. In recent years, light iron ploughs are gaining popularity. The wooden ploughs open the furrows to a depth of three inches to four inches. As this method is found to be deficient in turning over the soil completely, iron ploughs are being preferred. After ploughing, the clods are crushed. The uneven patches in the plots are levelled by means of indigenous levellers or by hand tools. This operation is very important as otherwise the spread of water would be uneven.

Manuring.—After the land is prepared, well-rotted farmyard manure, at the rate of about five cart-loads per acre, is applied according to availability. This is spread by the basket method and then harrowed so as to ensure a uniform mixture of the manure with the soil. Green leaves are trampled in between the rows. The recent researches in the field of green manure have been brought home to the cultivators and they now realise the need for these manures to get a good crop. In order to meet the shortage of

organic manures, wide application of green manure leaves is suggested. The quantity of green manure applied usually varies from 4,000 to 8,000 lbs. per acre. Application of inorganic manures like nitrogenous fertilisers and phosphatic fertilisers in addition to organic manures is also being practised.

Transplanting.—In order to obtain better yields, the cultivators have recourse to transplantation. In this method, the field is ploughed after the harvest of the previous crop. The clods are crushed in the seed-bed by using the wooden hammer or wooden plank. Farm-yard manure is then applied to the seed-bed at the rate of about ten cart-loads per acre. Three to four guntas of paddy land are required for raising seedlings for transplanting an acre. Nearly 40 lbs. of seeds are required to raise enough seedlings for an acre. The seedlings in the nursery bed will be ready for transplanting after three to four weeks. Before the actual transplanting, the paddy field is puddled by running the plough in water. This is done by the end of July or middle of August. Then five to eight seedlings in a bunch are transplanted at a spacing of six inches to eight inches. In August, hand weeding is done. Harvesting of paddy starts in the second or third week of November or middle of December depending on the duration of the crop. In the rabi varieties of paddy, the water in the field is drained off. The farm-yard manures or green leaves are applied to the field. The land is ploughed to loosen the soil and to incorporate the manures. The sprouted seeds at the rate of 80 lbs. per acre are broadcast, at the end of December. Water is let in on the ninth day after broadcasting. As the plants grow, the quantity of water is gradually increased taking care that plants are not submerged under water. The harvesting starts in the third week of March.

Irrigation.—Paddy crop requires adequate supply of water after one and a half months from the sowing date. Particular care is taken by the cultivators to avoid impounding of water in earlier stages. When the paddy plants are about 12 inches to 14 inches in height, regular impounding of water is resumed. In heavy soils care is taken to see that water is not impounded continuously.

Inter-cultivation.—Timely inter-cultivation for paddy helps in controlling weeds and keeping the soil well aerated. The first inter-cultivation is light and it helps in removing crust formation and facilitates the easy emergence of seedlings, particularly in the drilled variety. The subsequent inter-cultivation is continued upto two months. Once or twice hand-weeding becomes necessary for keeping the land free from weeds.

Japanese Method.—Since large-scale irrigation facilities are lacking in Gulbarga, there is not much area under this method. It is popular only in Yadgir taluk.

Harvesting.—At the time of harvesting, the plants are cut by a sickle. The grains are separated by beating the bundle of plants against a thick plank. Fifteen women are required to reap an acre of paddy in a day. Sixteen bullocks are required to thresh an acre of paddy in one day and four to six labourers are required to look after the threshing.

Diseases and Pests.—The worst disease of paddy is caused by the fungus, *Piricularia oryzae*, which has a number of physiological races. This is caused by excessive application of nitrogenous fertilizers, late planting, infection of the previous crop and the humid cloudy weather. This disease spreads rapidly through wind and rain and in common parlance it is called " Blast " or *Benki-roga* in Kannada. The grasses on the bunds of the paddy fields carry the infection. After the infestation of the disease, small, pale and somewhat watery oval spots appear on the leaves. The spots get enlarged, uniting with one another causing the leaves to dry up. The dried up patches of the crop put forth a blasted appearance in the nursery and in the field. The infected earheads, in severe cases, break at the weakened neck region. The grains on the earheads do not develop well and the loss of robustness is a sure sign of the blast disease. If there is a serious infestation of the blast, the loss in yield may go up to about ten per cent. The usual treatment adopted to check the disease is to dust sulphur or ceresan lime at the rate of five lbs. per acre. The infected leaves are cut off and the clippings are burnt.

The other disease which affects the paddy crop is called the Brown Leaf Spot, also caused by a fungus. This is not so serious as the *Benki-roga*. The infection is carried both internally and externally on the seed. This causes poor germination and results in seedling blight. The disease develops and spreads rapidly under moist conditions. As soon as the disease occurs, small brown to dark brown spots appear on the leaves, leaf sheaths and on the glumes. The spots are smaller and more numerous than those caused by blast. They increase in size, become irregular in shape and unite with one another. The leaves gradually wither and the plants turn yellow. Dark brown spots are also noticed on the grains. Infected grains do not develop well and become chaffy. The treatment adopted to check the disease is the same as adopted for the blast diseases. The *Karikaddi roga* is also caused by the fungus, *Ephelia oryzae*. This disease spreads from seeds of the infected corn. This infection is sporadic in the field and readily made out at the earhead stages. The infected earheads emerge from the sheath as a glistening cylindrical rod and stand out prominently at a later stage as a rigid, black, simple spike. The seeds are disinfected before sowing with ceresan, agrosan or tillex. The other diseases which affect the paddy plant occasionally are false smut or green smut, stem rot and chara. The common insect pests of paddy are the stem-borer, case-worm, grasshopper,

paddy gall fly, swarming caterpillar, green beetle and the rice hispa. Several known insecticides are used to control the pests.

Bajra—(Pennisatum typhoideum).—Kannada name: *Sajje*. Bajra is another important crop cultivated in all the taluks of the district. The following table indicates the taluk-wise acreage under Bajra during 1962-63:— **Bajra**

Taluk			*Acreage*
Gulbarga	..	..	36,821
Chittapur	..	..	19,500
Yadgir	..	..	15,403
Shahapur	..	..	10,723
Shorapur	..	..	23,949
Jevargi	..	..	38,132
Afzalpur	..	..	21,087
Aland	..	..	38,417
Chincholi	..	..	12,343
Seram	..	..	3,550
	Total	..	2,19,925

When Hyderabad was a separate dominion, it ranked fifth among the bajra-growing provinces in India. Hyderabad had nearly seven per cent of the total area under bajra in India. Bajra is the staple food crop of a large number of people in the district. It is grown only where it gives better results than jowar. It is always a kharif crop, grown in light soil, while jowar is chiefly sown on heavier soils both in kharif and rabi. The crop grows well when the climate is moderately dry and when the monsoon rains come in light showers with plenty of sunshine between showers. This spiked millet is a nutritious food containing about ten per cent of proteins and 70 per cent of starch and compares very favourably with jowar as food. The straw is a poor fodder and cannot compare with jowar straw. The cultivators in the district raise bajra as a mixed crop sown with several kinds of pulses. Bajra is sown after the advent of the south-west monsoon in June and harvested in September and October. The normal average yield is about 400 lbs. per acre. The proportion of grain to straw is generally the same as jowar—being about one to 2.5. The cultivation methods adopted for bajra are the same as those of jowar. The bajra grain is made into flour and is used in preparing bread.

Barley (Hordeum vulgare)—Kannada name: *Yave or Jave*. Barley is not so extensive as the jowar or the bajra crop. The cultivation of this crop is confined only to four taluks of the district, **Barley**

viz., Gulbarga, Shahapur, Jevargi and Afzalpur. The total acreage under this crop in 1962-63 was only 614, of which Afzalpur taluk alone had 547 acres. It is grown as a rabi irrigated crop and like irrigated wheat, is often a second crop in garden lands and takes its place in rotation among various garden crops. Barley is also grown as a separate crop, though occasionally there is a sprinkling of rape seed or mustard. This crop is essentially a light land crop, the sandy loam soil being particularly suitable. It is usually sown in October, the seed rate being 100 lbs. per acre. The crop matures in about four months. It is harvested at the end of January, threshed in the same way as wheat. Barley is a grain crop which resembles wheat in many respects. It is a crop of very ancient origin and for a very long time, it was of equal importance with wheat as a food crop. Before sowing, the field is ploughed several times, all clods broken and all weeds and stubble removed and burnt. In gardens where it is grown, the field is heavily manured with cowdung at the rate of ten cartloads per acre and ploughed well. The yield per acre comes to about 1,500 lbs. Though about a ton of straw is obtained, it does not make a good fodder. As a food, barley flour is prepared into unleavened bread. It serves as a wholesome diet for patients.

Wheat—(Triticum sativum)—Kannada name: *Godhi*. This is an important crop which is grown in all taluks of the district, Jevargi taluk alone having 20,237 acres out of the total area of 81,408 acres. It is also extensively grown in Chittapur, Shorapur, Aland and Afzalpur taluks. The following table indicates the taluk wise acreage under wheat in 1962-63 :—

Taluk			*Acreage*
Gulbarga	..	..	5,781
Chittapur	..	..	13,310
Yadgir	..	..	1,701
Shahapur	..	..	3,501
Shorapur	..	..	11,488
Jevargi	..	..	20,237
Afzalpur	..	..	10,416
Aland	..	..	10,252
Chincholi	..	..	2,166
Seram	..	..	3,000
	Total	..	81,408

Prior to the introduction of the P.W.-5 improved variety of wheat into the district, the cultivators were sowing the *Bansi*, *Lal* and *Jod Gahoon* varieties. The *Bansi* is a semi-hard, golden yellow variety well-suited to the soil. The *Lal* or red is a hard variety, while the *Jod Gahoon* is an irrigated variety. The

P.W.-5 improved variety is a selection from Parbhani and it yields 300 to 500 lbs. per acre. Wheat is always a rabi or spring crop in the district sown from September to November and harvested from February to March. It is the bread cereal of moderately dry temperate climates. Wheat thrives best in regions having an annual rainfall between 20 and 30 inches. Wheat grown in the more humid areas is generally soft and starchy. The crop is grown on silt loams and clay loams usually of high fertility, fine texture and with large humus content. As a dry crop, it grows best on deep black soil. For the irrigated variety, lighter soil is more suitable with a substratum of murram, two to three feet from the surface, to ensure good drainage. Dry crop wheat is sometimes sown alone and sometimes mixed with safflower, linseed or gram. This is rotated with cotton or jowar. The usual trade classification of hard and soft white wheats applies also to Gulbarga wheats. The hard whites have a higher percentage of gluten which gives them a flinty translucent appearance. The soft whites are starchy and opaque. The hard red wheats, popular in the district, are the best of the lot. The *Jod Gahoon* variety is classed as hard red. The seed rate is 55 to 66 lbs. per acre.

The field for wheat is well ploughed three to four times before the actual sowing. Cattle manure is then applied at the rate of about 20 cart-loads per acre. Ammonium sulphate is also given as a top dressing. The blade harrow is used for harrowing. The irrigated variety requires watering once in 15 to 20 days. Wheat is the chief cereal used in bread-making.

Ragi (Eleusine coracana).—Of the total acreage of 13,546 under ragi in the district, Yadgir taluk alone has an area of 9,451 acres, while Seram taluk comes next with 3,105 acres. Since ragi is grown on the red and gravelly soils with low moisture content, preparatory process is an important agronomic practice to increase the moisture-holding capacity of the soil. The land is brought to good tilth by ploughing four to five times with the improved iron ploughs and then levelled. This crop is entirely a rainfed crop in Gulbarga and thrives well on lands where the rainfall is 30 to 35 inches. Different sowing practices are in vogue, *viz.*, drilling,broadcast and transplanting. Wider spacing with good tillering scope is allowed. About ten cart-loads of farm-yard manure and tank silt are applied per acre before the actual sowing. Inter-cultivation is very essential for controlling weeds, removing extra seedlings and loosening of soil. Sometimes it is rotated by sesamum and niger. A fair average crop will yield from 600 to 1,000 lbs. of grain per acre. Ragi keeps well for a very long time if stored in underground pits. **Ragi**

Tur (Cajanus indicus)—Kannada name: *Togari*—This is a very important pulse in daily use by all sections of the population. A total of 1,90,013 acres was under tur cultivation in 1962-63, the

highest acreages being in Gulbarga and Aland taluks. The following table indicates the acreages taluk-wise during 1962-63.

Taluk			*Acreage*
Gulbarga	..	..	32,204
Chittapur	..	..	26,424
Yadgir	..	..	11,125
Shahapur	..	..	9,848
Sherapur	..	..	11,127
Jevargi	..	.	12,950
Afzalpur	..	..	13,828
Aland	.	..	28,510
Chincholi	..	..	20,287
Seram	.	..	23,710
	Total	..	1,90,103

This is grown in all varieties of soils. Soils with a large lime content are said to yield the best quality. The quality of the pulse consists in the quickness with which it softens on boiling. In Gulbarga, it is grown as a mixed crop with ragi and jowar. The total yield of tur dhal in 1962-63 was 25,870 tons. The C-28, an improved variety, is popular in the district.

Bengal Gram (Cicer arietinum)—Kannada name: *Kadle*.—This crop is grown in all the taluks of the district, Chittapur taluk alone accounting for 18,200 acres out of a total acreage of 76.109 (1962-63). The following table gives details of acreages in different taluks in that year:

Taluk			*Acreage*
Gulbarga	.	.	5,328
Chittapur	..	..	18,200
Yadgir	..	..	4,038
Shahapur	..	.	6,390
Shorapur	..	..	5,584
Jevargi	..	..	8,715
Afzalpur	..	..	6,357
Aland	..	..	10,640
Chincholi	..	..	5,703
Seram	..	..	5,154
	Total	..	76,109

This gram is grown as a rabi crop and is raised in deep black soils and also in tank beds. It is the sole crop of the year for the rabi season. Dry crop gram does very well on deep retentive black soils. The crop is sown in October and it ripens in February. The average yield is 400 to 500 lbs. per acre. It is also grown on alluvial soils when they are clay loams. The gram plant is useful in a variety of ways. It is used green as a vegetable; the foliage is often sun-dried and stored for use when required as a vegetable substitute. The ripe grain is used for dhal or is eaten parched or made into sweet-meats. A useful bye-product is secured from the leaves of the growing plant termed locally as *Amb.* This is the acid excretion of leaves and is collected by spreading a wet cloth over the foliage and wringing out the absorbed substance called *Amb*. Besides this, the crop is valuable in more than one way. It is a valuable rotation crop or dry and irrigated land. It is restorative like the other leguminous crops. A good crop is dense and shades the ground and therefore suppresses the growth of weeds. On dry black soil, it may be called a fallow crop. There are four varieties of gram which differ obviously in colour of the seed, *viz.*, black, red, yellow and white. The first three varieties are grown together. White or Kabuli variety is grown in some places. The chief pest is the pod cater-pillar which bites through the green pods and attacks the seeds.

Moong Dhal (Green gram)—Phaseolus aureus roxb—Kannada name : *Hesaru.* This is an important pulse grown over a total area of 60,550 acres in the district in 1962-63. The total production during that year was 5,886 tons. The average yield per acre is 442 lbs. This pulse is made use of in different ways in culinary practices and is best relished when made into cakes. The husks are usually removed and the split gram is boiled, fried or ground into flour. The plants are less hairy and in appearance less dark and more greenish and slightly taller than the black gram plants. The flowers have a lighter tint of yellow. The pods are slender and the seeds are green. The split pulse is yellow in colour. This crop is cultivated in both the early and late seasons. There are different varieties of the monsoon crop. Similar to black gram, moong is sown on paddy fields, partly as a green manure crop and partly for the sake of its produce. The seeds for this crop are sown either broadcast or harrowed in. The seeds are also sown in rows in plough furrows, some ten inches apart mixed with jowar. Within 70 days of sowing, the green pods are ready to pick and in another three weeks or a month, the pods become dry and then the crop is finally harvested. The seed rate is about 15 lbs. per acre. **Moong Dhal**

*Kulthi (*Horsegram)–Dolichos biflorus–Kannada name : *Huruli.* This is a pulse crop grown over a total area of 23,441 acres in the district (1962-63), the total production being 993 tons. The yield per acre as worked out by the District Agricultural Office was 175 **Kulthi**

lbs. This crop is sown in rows and is also broadcast. It is sown in plough furrows about nine inches apart and covered by the adjacent furrow or narrowed through the three-coultered jowar seed drill. The kulthi plants are thin-leaved, particularly climbing bushes reaching a height of only a foot. They come up thick and cover the ground completely under normal conditions. This crop is looked upon also as a source of green fodder. It is considered as a poor man's pulse crop and eaten both boiled and fried. It is also given as food for horses.

Masur

Masur (English name: Lentil).—This is also a pulse crop cultivated over an area of 895 acres (1962-63). The production in the same year was 27 tons. The lentil is a pulse of considerable importance in the district. Although it is sparsely grown and its dhal is in use only to a small extent, its cultivation has assumed some importance in the area. Masur is grown in a variety of soil types, such as light loams, alluvial soils and black cotton soils. It is raised as a cold weather crop in the same way as Bengal gram. The field intended for lentils is prepared very thoroughly in the case of black cotton soils which are ploughed soon after the monsoon rains and are then worked with the bladed harrows and brought into a rough tilth for sowing. The crop has a three and a half months' duration from February to April depending upon the time of sowing. The split pulse or dhal which resembles small-sized tur dhal is deep orange in colour, unlike the yellow of the tur dhal. It is not subject to serious pests. The lentil is an important food crop, being a pulse rich in proteins.

Sugarcane

Sugarcane (Saccharum officinarum)—Kannada name: *Kabbu*. According to the statistics supplied by the District Agricultural Office, the total area under sugarcane in the district in 1962-63 was 2,162 acres with a total production of 2,972 tons. The improved variety of cane which is popular in the district is Co 419. The main sowing season is from January to March. The sugarcane in the district is raised under well irrigation. Sugarcane grown in the district is marketed either as cane for chewing or manufactured into *gur*. Before the advent of improved varieties, there were many varieties called *Poondia, Kabirya, Kavangiri, Bangdya, Khadya and Wansi*. Sugarcane is a perennial plant springing up from the root-stock after cutting. A uniform high temperature, strong sunlight and frequent showers during the growing season are very desirable to keep the cane growing. Cool or cloudy weather and drought are likely to stunt the growth. Sugarcane requires a fertile soil and well-manured fields. The crop is propagated from sets (16,000 per acre or 40 maunds per acre) planted usually in prepared beds. According to the soil, climate and the variety to be grown, the time of planting varies in different localities. In Gulbarga area, the canes are planted in March and April. Everywhere the cane takes 12 to 14 months to mature. It was

usual for sugarcane to be planted in the same field after harvesting. But this practice is now fast declining. When the cane is harvested, the field is prepared for paddy. This is akin to the block system that is in vogue in the Visvesvaraya Canal area in Mandya district. In the first year, canes are not pulled out, but are cut clean with a hatchet close to the ground. The field is cleared of dry leaves, all rubbish is burnt and the crop is irrigated. After the shoots have grown two to three feet high, the field is dug up and farm-yard manure is applied. Sugarcane is subject to the attack of several diseases and pests, the most harmful of which are the red rot disease and the sugarcane borer.

Chillies

Chillies (Capsicum frutesen)—Kannada name: *Mensinakai.* This important cash crop is grown in all the taluks of the district, Chincholi taluk alone accounting for 7,851 acres out of a total area of 21,804 acres; the following table indicates the extent of acreage in different taluks in 1962-63.

Taluk	*Acreage*
Gulbarga	1,326
Chittapur	1,224
Yadgir	1,512
Shahapur	1,656
Shorapur	1,285
Jevargi	697
Afzalpur	1,441
Aland	482
Chincholi	7,851
Seram	4,330
Total	21,804

Chillies are generally grown in garden lands. The crop is invariably planted during the rainy season and if helped by irrigation, the growth extends into the rabi season. Chillies, to a large extent, are grown as a separate crop and sometimes planted as a subsidiary to other garden crops. The best dry-crop chillies are grown on deep retentive black soils. The irrigated crop is raised in the mixed black soil. The field is thoroughly prepared and well-manured. The seedlings which are raised in a nursery are transplanted by about July. The fruit ripens within three months after transplantation. Picking goes on for three to five months. The irrigated crop lasts longer than the unirrigated crop. Where there is demand for green chillies, they are picked three times a month. Ripe chillies are picked three to four times in the course of the whole season. After picking they are dried in the sun and taken to the market. A good, unirrigated crop produces about 1,000 lbs. per acre. The irrigated yields are higher. Chillies are an uncertain crop as cloudy weather at the time of flowering proves harmful. There are several varieties of chillies such as the ordinary long, narrow and tapering variety called *Lavangia.* Another variety

is *Bor Mirchi* which bears small round fruits. *Bari Mirchi* with large long pods and *Vilayati Mirchi* with large broad pods are also grown. Chillies are used as ingredients in food preparations.

Non-Food Crops

Among the non-food crops grown in the district, cotton is the most important. It is sown in all the taluks of the district. The following table indicates its acreage in each taluk in 1962-63 :—

Taluk			*Acreage*
Gulbarga	..	..	20
Chittapur	..	..	642
Yadgir	.	..	10,590
Shahapur	.	..	42,324
Shorapur	..	..	43,327
Jevargi	.	..	19,132
Afzalpur	.	..	302
Aland	..	..	251
Chincholi		..	..
Seram	.	..	32
	Total	..	1,16,620

Cotton is known to have been cultivated in India as early as 800 B.C. It is the most important source of material for clothing and household fabrics and has also many industrial uses. The production of cotton has increased at a somewhat greater rate since 1840. With the invention of the gin, this fibre rapidly replaced linen and wool for many common purposes and the demand for cotton has now become very great. The best cotton soils are the deep black soils or fertile silt. The outturn varies according to soil, rainfall and the attention bestowed on the crop. On an average, the district produces 300 lbs. of seed cotton per acre or 100 lbs. of lint, but the variation from area to area is great. Similar to other crops, the cotton crop is also subject to mishaps. Cloudy weather causes shedding of flowers and untimely showers cause deterioration in the quality of the lint. But with all this, cotton is a favourite crop with the cultivators. Comparatively, its cultivation is easier. It is not subject to diseases which totally destroy the crop. Above everything else, it can be converted into a cash crop as soon as the fields are picked. There is no threshing or delay of any kind and there is always a ready market for the picked cotton. Hence, the cotton crop is considered by the cultivator as his chief crop for paying the land revenue assessment and providing money for his means of livelihood, while the jowar crop is for his food.

In Gulbarga district, cotton is rotated with jowar in heavy soils and with bajra in light soils. But the rotation is modified according to the area, season and the conditions of the field.

Wheat, tur and linseed are grown sometimes as rotation crops. In Gulbarga district, cotton is sown after white jowar and other crops. The ploughing of the cotton field is done once in five or six years or oftener. Repeated harrowing with the bladed harrow is quite common in the district. Cotton is sown in lines with the wooden drill called *tiphan* or *mogha*. The drill may be single, two or three-coultered. The distance between rows varies from twelve to twenty-two inches. Paired rows of tur are planted after every 10 to 15 rows of cotton. Interculturing is done two to three times by means of the bullock hoe (*Kolpa*). In Gulbarga, cotton is sown after the north-east monsoon showers in September. If it is sown earlier than September, the lint would be ruined by late rains. The yield is higher for kharif than for rabi cotton. Sowing of kharif cotton is done in Gulbarga from June to mid-July. This crop is called the *Mungari* crop. The *Hingari* crop is sown in September or in the early part of October. Picking for kharif is done from November to January and for rabi from February to April. There are usually four pickings. Most of the produce is marketed as *Kapas* or unginned. The popular varieties of cotton grown in Gulbarga district are Jayant, Laxmi and Jayadhar.

Tobacco

Tobacco (Nicotiana tabacum) was grown in an area covering only 1,401 acres 1962-63 with an outturn of 197 tons. It is an important cash crop and is grown on any soil in the district. But the best crop requires particular types of soil. It is grown in small patches round about villages on loamy soil. The area of tobacco increases or decreases according to the cultivation of chillies which are said to fetch better prices than tobacco and are easier to be handled. Besides, the same fields are suitable for chillies and the method of cultivation is practically the same. In the cultivation of tobacco, 90 per cent of the acreage is unirrigated and ten per cent is irrigated. It is the irrigated crop that is usually exported while the unirrigated crop is locally consumed. Two varieties of tobacco are grown in the district. The *Nicotiana rustica* with yellow flowers and coarse texture and round oblong leaves are used for *hookah* and snuff. The second variety called the *Nicotiana tabacum* with pink flowers and elongated smooth leaves is used for smoking. Tobacco requires very careful treatment of the seed-bed and of the field. The field is well-prepared and manured. Seeds are sown in July on raised beds at the rate of 1½ ounces for an acre. Seedlings will become ready for transplantation in about 40 days. The planting is usually done in August. After six weeks, the young crop is tapped, keeping 10 to 15 leaves per plant, the lowest three of which are subsequently removed. Hoeing and weeding are also done at the same time. It is mostly a dry crop. The methods of harvesting and curing vary according to the quality required.

Oil-seeds—Groundnut

Groundnut (Arachis hypogea)—Kannada name: *Nelagadale*. Among the oil-seeds, groundnut is most extensively grown in all the taluks of the district. It covered an area of 2,49,309 acres in 1962-63. The crop is widely grown in Yadgir, Gulbarga Shorapur and Aland taluks. The following table indicates the extent of acreage in different taluks in that year:—

Taluk	*Acreage*
Gulbarga	36,416
Chittapur	11,941
Yadgir	48,036
Shahapur	31,451
Shorapur	34,175
Jevargi	18,328
Afzalpur	25,853
Aland	32,360
Chincholi	6,193
Seram	4,556
Total	2,49,309

The T.M.V.-2 bunch type variety evolved at the Agricultural Research Station at Tindivanam in Madras State is quite popular in Gulbarga. This is a kharif and irrigated summer variety sown in June-July and takes about 105 to 115 days to mature. Groundnut can be grown both as a dry and as an irrigated crop. In Gulbarga district, it is exclusively a dry crop. The seed rate employed is 60 lbs per acre. The groundnut plant is a hardy one and easy to cultivate. It needs little cultivation beyond weeding Two or three hoeings before the nuts are formed usually suffice. It requires little manure except when grown for several consecutive years on comparatively heavy soil. It is often grown in a three-year rotation with a cereal and cotton or in a two-year rotation with one of these. After the soil has been pulverised to a depth of four to five inches, the nuts are sown, sometimes in their shells about one to two inches deep and three to four inches apart with about 24 to 36 inches between the rows. Usually nuts from the previous crop are used, but a periodical renewal of the seed stock is desirable to maintain the yield and strengthen resistance to attacks of insects and diseases. The growth depends upon the variety of seed planted. The bunch variety which is popular in the district is harvested by working the harrow directly in the field. The plants are uprooted through this process. The plants with the pods are then collected and taken to the threshing yard where they are allowed to dry for

four or five days. From an acre of groundnut field about 800 lbs. of dry, good fodder are obtained. The shells of the pods are used for manure. Oil and cake are the products of the kernel. Of late, the demand for groundnut oil has increased. It is used as an edible oil for culinary purposes and also for the manufacture of margarine and soap. Groundnut cake is a very highly concentrated nitrogenous food and in moderate quantity it is excellent for milch cattle and for hard-worked bullocks and for sheep. It is also a very useful manure for sugarcane.

Sesamum (Sesamum indicum)—Kannada name: *Yellu*. This is an important oilseed. It covered an area of 36,604 acres in Gulbarga district with a yield of 2,847 tons in 1962-63. This crop flourishes on lighter soils. It does not withstand heavy rainfall. In some areas, it is sown separately, though in others it is grown as a mixed crop. It is mainly a kharif crop being generally sown from May to July and harvested from September to December. A fair average crop yields from 280 to 400 lbs. per acre. There are three varieties of sesamum commonly grown in the district, *viz*., white, red and black. The white variety yields earlier and is also slightly richer in oil. Sesamum cakes are a good cattle food. **Sesamum**

Linseed (Linum usitatisimum)—Kannada name: *Agase*. The area under linseed cultivation during 1962-63 was 65,173 acres. The production of linseed was 4,147 tons in that year. The area under linseed depends to a very large extent on the success or failure of the kharif crops. If the kharif crops fail on account of untimely rains, the fields are ploughed, harrowed and made ready for rabi sowing of wheat or linseed. Linseed is a rabi crop in Gulbarga district, sown in deep black moisture-holding soils. It is generally grown alone and is the sole crop of the year. It is sown in rotation and never successively. The seed rate for linseed sowing is ten to eleven pounds per acre. The seed is usually sown in September and the crop is ready for harvest in February and March. A good crop will yield about 300 lbs. of seed per acre, just as much as in the United States of America. In Gulbarga district, this crop is grown for its seed which supplies oil and cake. The seed is used in preparing condiments and the oil in cookery and also in preparing paints and varnishes. The residual oil-cake is one of the best cattle foods known and also a good manure. The varieties of linseed grown in the district are mostly the brown bold type and the small seed type. **Linseed**

Castor (Ricinus communis)—Kannada name: *Haralu*. Castor was raised in the district in an area of about 2,933 acres in 1962-63 with an out-turn of 109 tons. There are perennial and annual varieties of this plant. The annual varieties grown in the district are very much smaller in size than the perennial. The latter grows with great rapidity and a year's growth produces a **Castor**

tree 10 to 15 feet high. Seasonal conditions play an important part in determining the area and yield of the crop. When the rainfall is below normal, the acreage diminishes. Castor oil is prepared out of the seeds and is used for various purposes including lubrication.

Fruits and Vegetables

Horticulture

The popularisation of horticulture in the district has been well planned and directed. The Directorate of Horticulture has made efforts to instil in the minds of growers, the need to produce fruits and vegetables as a supplement to the day-to-day dietary. Many of the fruit crops like banana, guava, mango and citrus varieties are grown in the area. The cultivation of grapes and figs has made some headway. In respect of vegetables, the common varieties grown are brinjal, tomato, lady's finger, cluster beans, carrot, radish, cucumber and different varieties of gourds. Cabbage and cauliflower are also becoming popular.

The Department of Horticulture initiated a drive in 1960 to create interest amongst the cultivators to take up horticulture in right earnest. In the beginning an attempt was made in the Aiwan-e-Shahi gardens to multiply seed material in order to supply them to the cultivators. The old traditional methods of raising kitchen gardens and fruit plantations were replaced by new scientific methods. The new technique of cultivation propagated by the experts of the department was well understood by the progressive cultivators. A branch of the Mysore Horticultural Society was started in Gulbarga town and the members who constituted it were benefited by the advice of the experts.

During 1965-66, 250 kitchen gardens were laid out and vegetable seeds and seedlings were distributed. Under this scheme, seeds worth Rs. 2,356 were supplied to those who came forward to raise gardens.

A new scheme has been started to popularise the cultivation of arecanut. Under this scheme, 2,000 seedlings have been sown for supplying the plants later to cultivators.

During 1965-66, the staff of the Horticultural Department visited 150 fruit gardens, 306 vegetable gardens and 30 ornamental gardens and gave guidance. Lay-out guidance was also given to 200 fruit orchards, 250 vegetable gardens and 5 ornamental gardens.

Several schemes relating to coconut development and fruit development have been undertaken.

All the development blocks in the district have been asked to follow the technical guidance of the Horticultural Department.

During 1964-65 and 1965-66, horticultural shows were arranged as an incentive to grow more fruits and vegetables. Prizes for the best exhibits were also awarded.

Horticultural classes are being conducted by the technical staff of the department in association with the Jawahar Club. During 1965-66, 30 lady candidates received training in modern methods of growing fruits and vegetables. During the same year, cultivators in the district received 1,000 mango plants, 400 sapota plants, 4,950 lime plants, 450 guava plants, 300 *santra* plants, 2,607 *mosambi* plants, 2,700 coconut seedlings and 3,200 grape cuttings.

The area under fruits and vegetables in the district during 1965-66 was as shown in the table below :—

Name of Taluk	*Mango*	*Banana*	*Grapes*	*Citrus*	*Others*	*Sweet Potato*	*Onion*	*Leafy Vegetables*
	(In acres)							
Gulbarga ..	50	241	5	8	17	75	802	89
Chittapur ..	135	7	1	5	15	11	65	100
Yadgir ..	107	24	1	6	707	145	696	427
Shahapur ..	59	30	..	9	8	13	520	112
Shorapur ..	4	10	..	16	21	..	..	..
Jevargi ..	16	32	1	14	18	40	314	24
Afzalpur ..	10	86	2	8	22	24	274	281
Aland ..	26	340	5	36	41	98	50	70
Chincholi ..	6	12	..	3	7	..	58	22
Seram ..	90	5	..	5	7	190	66	346
Total area	503	787	15	110	863	596	2,845	1,471

The total area under fruits and vegetables in the district during 1965-66 was 7,190 acres.

Agricultural Implements

In the old days, the usual implements were the wooden plough, the *bukhar* and seed drills. Owing to the impact of scientific agriculture, iron ploughs are now becoming common. The implements that are in common use are the Desi wooden ploughs, iron mould ploughs, Balram and Kangar ploughs, harrows, levellers, local seed drill, Kirloskar plough No. 100, buck scraper, *bukhars, edikunte,* Gator sprayer, foot-sprayer, double barrel foot pump, rotary duster and chaff cutters. For interculturing purposes, the Kolpa is used. The blade-harrow is also used for breaking the clods in the fields. During 1960-61, there were in all 92,477 ploughs of all descriptions and 32,838 country carts.

Tractors.—During 1964-65, there were 20 tractors in the district. The Agricultural Department makes arrangements to supply tractors on hire basis. Some of the well-to-do landowners own their own tractors.

Seed Supply

Multiplication and distribution of improved seeds are being done by the State Agricultural Department. The nucleus seeds are multiplied in the Agricultural Research Station at Raichur and other research stations and from there the seeds are sent to the seed farms located in the district. The seed farms are located at Kotnur, Aland, Chandapur, Raddewadgi, Hathigudur, Seram and Yadgir. These seed farms in turn multiply the seeds sent by the main agricultural farms and give them to registered seed-growers and they in turn multiply the seeds. The seed multiplication operations are watched by technical personnel. After all these preliminaries, the improved seeds are given to cultivators. In order to encourage the cultivators to multiply the improved seeds, a sum of four rupees per quintal is being paid as subsidy plus Rs. 1-25 per quintal for storage.

Distribution of Fertilisers

Formerly, the District Agricultural Officer was distributing modern fertilisers to the cultivators on application. But at present, the co-operative societies are entrusted with the task of distribution. In accordance with the Fertiliser Control Order, 1957, licences are given to Taluk Agricultural Produce Co-operative Marketing Societies for distribution of chemical fertilisers. There were 12 wholesale licensees and 95 retail licensees in the district in 1965. Besides, private dealers are also licensed to deal in fertiliser mixtures.

Pests and Diseases

The major pests affecting the agricultural crops in the district are the tur pod borer, groundnut aphids, thrips on chillies, jowar grasshopper and the red-haired caterpillar on different crops. The diseases are jowar smut, paddy blast, ticca disease on groundnuts, wheat rust and the sugary disease of the jowar. Pesticides are largely used to control the diseases and pests. During 1960-61, a sum of Rs. 67,136 was spent on plant protection. In the year 1965, out of a total area of about 2.50 lakh acres under tur dhal crop in Gulbarga district, over a lakh of acres was affected by the tur pod borer pest. To bring this pest under control, insecticides worth about two lakhs of rupees and plant protection equipment worth about a lakh of rupees were supplied by the Government to the raiyats in the affected areas.

Development Activities

The aim of the Agricultural Department has throughout been to step up food production in the district. With a view to achieving the targets fixed during the Five-Year Plan periods, the department is paying attention to the distribution of good seeds for the purpose. Ample and constant propaganda is being conducted in regard to the application of manures and fertilisers.

Adequate quantities of insecticides and pesticides are being supplied in times of need to the raiyats to fight the infestations. Arrangements were made during 1960-61 to have an area of about 100 acres of tur crop sprayed aerially with insecticides. In order to bring sufficient land under irrigation, action was taken to sink a large number of irrigation wells. About 1,240 pump sets were supplied to the raiyats till the last year (1965) of the Third Plan period. During the Third Plan period, an effective organisation on a uniform basis was set up to fight the ravages of pests and diseases. Nearly 2,500 appliances for plant protection were to be supplied at a cost of Rs. 3.06 lakhs. All the various schemes in operation for advising the raiyats on improved agricultural practices were proposed to be amalgamated into a single organisation in the Third Plan period. Agricultural implements are being supplied to cultivators on a subsidised basis. Crop competitions on various food crops and demonstrations on improved agricultural practices are being conducted.

Development in fruit production.—There was a scheme during the Third Plan period for the purpose of developing horticulture in the State. Under this scheme, an adequate technical staff at State, Divisional and District levels was being organised to advise on plant protection measures, agronomic practices and preparation of plans for raising fresh orchards. Sufficient loans were being given for the establishment of new gardens and rejuvenation of old ones. It was proposed to bring 600 acres under new orchards at a cost of Rs. 2.05 lakhs.

Oilseeds development.—A comprehensive scheme for the promotion of better oilseeds was launched during the Third Plan period. More area will be brought under oilseed crops by adopting mixed cropping. At a cost of Rs. 3.44 lakhs, it was intended to increase the production of oilseeds by 0.27 lakh tons.

Cotton Development Scheme.—During the Third Plan four different schemes were combined into one in order to have a planned co-ordinated programme of development. This scheme included the distribution of improved varieties of seeds suitable for different tracts, grading of cotton and execution of different legislative measures like Cotton Control Act, Cotton Transport Act and the Ginning and Pressing Factories Act at a cost of Rs. 0.75 lakh. An additional 20,000 acres of land would be brought under cotton cultivation thereby getting 10,000 more bales of cotton.

Bajra Research Scheme.—Bajra being an important staple crop and the per acre yield being comparatively low, a new scheme is under way to increase the production. It is intended to establish a Research Sub-Station in the Gulbarga sub-division at a

cost of Rs. 2.03 lakhs for which a token grant of Rupees one lakh has already been sanctioned.

Pulses Research Scheme.—Pulses form an important proteinous food in the human diet. Measures are under way to increase the production of pulses by evolving high-yielding, superior varieties and also by developing suitable agronomic practices. It is proposed to start a Regional Research Station in Gulbarga at a cost of Rs. 5.64 lakhs.

Demonstration Plots.—Each year, about 500 to 600 fertiliser demonstration plots are laid out on the fields owned by the raiyats for convincing them of the efficacy of modern methods of agriculture. Apart from this, a number of varietal trials are also conducted so as to demonstrate the superiority of improved seeds over the local variety. Agricultural Demonstration Centres have been opened on the cultivators' fields at the headquarters of the village level worker. These centres serve as model farms for the benefit of the raiyats.

Compost.—The various municipal and other organisations in the district prepare compost on a scientific basis During 1964-65 a total of 2,123 tons of urban compost and 98,922 tons of rural compost were produced.

Farmers' Forum.—During 1964-65, there were 21 young farmers' clubs functioning in the district with 36 life members, 646 active members and 334 ordinary members to inculcate in the minds of the cultivators the need to pursue scientific methods of agriculture. These associations are responsible in bringing together the cultivators by organising seminars and meetings. At these meetings, all problems affecting agriculture are discussed and methods thought of to increase the food production. Technical assistance is offered by agricultural specialists of the department to the cultivators.

Impact of Community Development

As a result of adopting extension methods at the village level, there has been a great awakening among the raiyats in respect of improved seeds, fertilisers, insecticides and development. There are equipments in Aland, Gulbarga and Yadgir blocks for exhibition of films bearing on increased yield. The cultivators visit these shows often to learn new methods and technique. The Directorate of Publicity and Information through its Regional Office in Gulbarga has set up 134 community radio sets, throughout the district through which the cultivators learn a lot about modern methods of agriculture. The rural programme put on the air every evening and the Radio Rural Forum twice a week are heard by cultivators with interest. The Regional Officer, Five-Year Plan Publicity, has his sub-office in Gulbarga. Through this agency, films of interest bearing on improved methods of agricul-

ture are exhibited periodically. During big *jathras* and *uruses*, agricultural exhibitions are arranged to instil in the minds of the raiyats the need to pursue scientific methods in farming.

ANIMAL HUSBANDRY

Cattle wealth is of considerable importance to the sound economy of the district. Bullocks and buffaloes are still essential companions of the cultivators. A good cultivator usually keeps a pair of bullocks, a few cows and one or two buffaloes. Sheep, goats and poultry do not always form part of the livestock wealth of an average cultivator. Rather, the poorer sections among them or the landless labourers keep sheep, goats and poultry. A farmer's standing in agriculture is judged by the number of cattle he keeps. Cattle wealth of any particular area depends on the quality of the breed. It is not considered advisable to multiply poorer breeds of cattle as they would not be conducive to the economy of the area. Judged by these accepted standards, Gulbarga, though it is the biggest district in the Hyderabad-Karnatak area, has not been congenial for raising a better breed of cattle. The low rainfall and fodder scarcity are the causes for this handicap. As a result, the cultivators get their cattle from the neighbouring areas.

Breeds of Cattle

Among the cattle of the district, there are two distinct breeds, *viz.*, the *Deoni* variety and the *Khillar* variety. The *Deoni* breed is found in Gulbarga, Chittapur, Seram, Chincholi and Yadgir taluks, while the *Khillar* breed is popular in Jevargi, Shahapur, Shorapur, Aland and Afzalpur taluks. The *Deoni* variety is a dual purpose heavy animal well-known for its milch quality. It has a glossy attractive coat and is robust and heavy. The *Khillar* breed mainly imported from the Maharashtra districts is a spirited and strong animal with red-shot eyes indicative of strength and stamina. But unfortunately, the *Khillar* breed is poor in milk yield. The position of livestock in the district as per Livestock Census, 1961, was as follows :—

Cattle ..	6,58,872
Buffaloes ..	1,65,682
Sheep ..	2,79,281
Goats ..	2,16,668
Poultry ..	3,25,693
Donkeys ..	4,502
Camels ..	68
Pigs ..	6,901
Horses and Ponies ..	9,616

Key Village Scheme

In addition to the starting of Artificial Insemination Centres, the Key Village Centre offers a good and easy scope to develop good breeds of cattle. The Key Village Centres demonstrate to the rural population, the advantages of improved methods of breeding and efficient management of livestock. Under this new scheme a compact group of five or six villages is placed in charge of a qualified Veterinary Inspector appointed by the State Animal Husbandry Department, whose responsibility it is to pay frequent visits to all the villages for attending to the needs of cattle and other livestock development activities. Apart from demonstrating the advantages of improved methods, these key village centres maintain stud bulls. This is a joint venture by the State and Central Governments and the cost is shared equally by both. The Key Village Scheme was established in the district at a total cost of Rs. 58,000 as a plan scheme in February 1961, with a view to utilising and distributing throughout the area, the superior semen of pedigree bulls on systematically planned basis for upgrading the non-descript cattle. The centre is located in the premises of the veterinary hospital at Gulbarga. In 1964-65 the area within a radius of 10 to 12 miles comprising six villages grouped into six sub-centres was covered by this centre. At this centre, one *Deoni* and one *Murrah* buffalo bulls are stationed for purposes of artificial insemination. To cover the inferior cows and to prevent indiscriminate breeding, 12 *Deoni* bulls have been supplied to private breeders. Mass castration of scrub bulls is undertaken in the entire area covered by the Key Village Scheme in order to enforce controlled breeding as quickly as possible. It is further proposed to extend breeding operations to the other taluks of the district, through the establishment of Artificial Insemination Sub-Centres, whenever additional equipment and buildings become available. For the immediate future, Aland, Afzalpur, Chittapur and Yadgir are selected for the establishment of such centres.

Breeding operations in rural areas.—In addition to the Key Village Centre, the Animal Husbandry Department and the NES authorities are both supplying breeding bulls to private professional breeders on a subsidised basis.

Silo Pits.—Most of the livestock in the district live on a subsistence level. Their performance is therefore very low. In these circumstances, the development of fodder is of paramount importance, if the breeding programme of livestock is to succeed and show satisfactory results. Fodder development programmes comprise popularisation of fodder crops and grasses, conservation of surplus grasses for the lean periods, economical use of fodders and development of pastures. In order to promote fodder production in the district, silo pits are being constructed. During

1962, 1,55,000 grass slips of Rhodes, Napier, Bluepanic and other known varieties were distributed for propagation. In 1964, 25 kilograms of Anjan seeds were distributed through Block Offices in the district.

Poultry Farms

As a part of a Centrally sponsored scheme, a Poultry Extension Centre was established in the district, within the premises of the Veterinary Hospital, Gulbarga, during 1960-61 at a cost of Rs. 53,000. The strength of the birds at the extension centre on 1st January 1962 was as follows :—

		White Leghorn	*Rhode Island Red*
Cocks	..	7	5
Hens	..	40	43
Cockerels	..	23	26
Pullets	..	26	28
Chicks	..	137	147

The primary object of this scheme is to saturate the area with exotic breeds on the basis of subsidy and to supply cocks on exchange with that of the local type for breeding purposes. In addition to the Poultry Extension Centre, there are two small poultry units, one at Saidapur in Yadgir taluk and the other at Aland attached to the N.E.S. Block. The strength of the birds in these units was as follows :—

Saidapur Unit.—

White Leghorn	..	45
Rhode Island Red	..	21

Aland Unit.—

White Leghorn	..	25
Rhode Island Red	..	26

These units have been started for demonstration purposes and to educate the people on scientific breeding.

Sheep Rearing

Sheep Rearing.—The local varieties of sheep have not been up to the mark. In order to upgrade the local varieties, the Animal Husbandry Department has launched a vigorous scheme of sheep rearing. Under this measure, 20 stud rams have been supplied to cultivators in order to breed good varieties.

Milk Supply Scheme.—During the Third Five-Year Plan, a milk unit for the supply of pure and wholesome milk to the urban population of Gulbarga was taken up at a cost of rupees eight lakhs to be executed on a phased programme.

Veterinary Facilities

The District Veterinary Officer is in charge of the departmental activities in the district. He is concerned mainly with the inspection of veterinary hospitals and dispensaries, organising cattle shows and the like. There is a District Veterinary Hospital in Gulbarga which attends to the livestock diseases. This is managed by a veterinary graduate assisted by a compounder. At the taluk level from 1963 onwards there are dispensaries in each taluk managed by Veterinary Inspectors with compounders. Besides, there were in 1965, 15 Rural Veterinary Dispensaries at Kamalapur, Gurmatkal, Saidapur, Farhatabad, Kodli, Sulepet, Hebbal, Shahabad, Gowndagunthi, Mashal, Deval Ghangapur, Wadgera, Kodla, Yadrami and Hunasagi. The Saidapur dispensary is under the N.E.S. staff. After the district was integrated with the new Mysore State, the District Veterinary Hospital at Gulbarga town was upgraded with the provision of additional staff and equipment to cope with the increased work. All the ten taluk dispensaries will in the near future be converted into stationary ones, with the provision of additional staff, so that any serious case may be treated promptly. The artificial insemination centres are located at Gulbarga, Pattam, Aurad Afzalpur, Savalgi, Sultanpur, Hirenandur and Sanadagi.

Livestock Diseases.—The animal diseases generally prevalent in the district are Anthrax, Black-quarter, Haemorrhagic Septicaemia, Sheep-pox, foot and mouth disease and parasitic diarrhoea. Among the non-contagious diseases, respiratory, digestive and generative ailments are common. Mass inoculations and other preventive and curative methods are employed to check the spread of the diseases.

FISHERIES

There are 210 tanks in the district, of which seven are perennial, 18 long-seasonal and the rest short-seasonal, in addition to minor tanks, irrigation wells and ponds available for fish culture. Since 1959, the fisheries unit at Gulbarga has stocked Bengal Carp in a few selected sheets of water. The major rivers, *viz.*, Krishna and Bhima which are torrential during the monsoon months are reduced in flow during the summer and can only support the local variety of fish seed, *i.e.*, Labeo fimbriatus. A Fisheries Development Division was opened in Gulbarga during 1958 under the inland fisheries development scheme. The main

work of the division is to undertake systematic cultivation of quick-growing species of fish, both indigenous and exotic in the impounded waters, such as wells, ponds and tanks, to conserve and exploit river fishes, organise fishermen's co-operatives, to improve marketing facilities and to popularise fish culture. The Directorate of Fisheries has conducted a survey of the fishery resources in the entire district. Ponds and tanks were inspected with a view to finding out their suitability for fish culture. Fry and fingerlings of the local variety were collected and stocked in selected tanks and wells. Fry of Bengal Carps, Catla, Rohu and Mrigal were supplied and the fry were reared in the nurseries. Technical guidance to the village panchayats and other local bodies regarding the construction of fish ponds was given and the necessary training was also imparted in fish culture to the fishermen and gramsevaks.

The following kinds of fishes are found in the district:—

1. Labeo fimbriatus
2. Labeo calbasu
3. Labeo nukta
4. Ophicephalus marulius
5. Ophicephalus striatus
6. Ophicephalus punctatus
7. Ophicephalus gachua
8. Callichrous bimaculatus
9. Wallago ottu
10. Mystus aor
11. Mystus seeghala
12. Anguilla bengalensis
13. Mastacembelus armatus
14. Notopterus notopterms

The total population of fishermen in the district is about 2,000 belonging to the Salager, Kabber, Katubu and Bhoi communities. The fishermen are distributed along the banks of the Bhima and Krishna rivers in Afzalpur, Gulbarga, Shahapur and Yadgir taluks. Fishing is brisk in the hot season. Cast nets, gill nets, drag nets, prawn nets and long lines are used for fishing. There are yet no fish market facilities in the district. Most of the fish catch is consumed locally.

The schemes under the Third Plan aimed at increasing fish production in impounded waters, by stocking fast-growing fish, increasing the catch both from the tanks and rivers by supplying fishing requisites to fishermen and providing them with stocking facilities. The new schemes envisage the supply of fishery requisites such as nylon yarn, cotton twines, floats and the like. It is proposed to construct a fish market at Gulbarga to enable the fishermen to sell their catches in hygienic condition. Ten

lakhs of fish seed, both of indigenous and exotic varieties, have been stocked in impounded waters. As a measure of conservation and for multiplication of fish stocks, a sanctuary at a cost of Rs. 0.10 lakh is to be established on the banks of the Bhima river near Deval-Ghangapur in Afzalpur taluk.

Famine and Scarcity

From a long time, the western portions of the erstwhile Nizam's Dominions were susceptible to crop failure and serious scarcity conditions. This area came to be known as the famine zone. Reports of famines and scarcities exist from 1620 as revealed by historical records. Many of these famines were the result of drought; many were brought about by wars and political upheavals. There was a great famine in 1630 A.D. which devastated vast areas in the western region of the Deccan. Twenty years later, another famine occurred which was caused both by wars and by drought. In 1659, there was a famine throughout the sub-continent and the territory now comprising the Hyderabad-Karnatak also faced a difficult situation. Again in 1681, the central portion of India was affected by famine due both to the state of war then prevailing and to a season of drought. Further, the years 1685 and 1713 were also famine years in the Gulbarga area. In 1730, the first recorded famine, since the Asaf Jahi dynasty came into power, occurred and there was great distress throughout the Deccan. The year 1747 was a famine year. Again in 1749, a serious famine occurred in the western portions of the Nizam's Dominions. The same area was affected again in 1787. In 1792-93, distress prevailed throughout the Hyderabad-Karnatak region. This was known as *Dogi Bara* or the skull famine owing to the appalling number of human beings that perished. Famines ravaged Gulbarga district in 1804, 1819, 1833, 1854, 1873, 1877-78 (the great famine), 1897 and 1899-1900 (also severe), 1909 (fodder famine), 1922-23, 1934 and 1945. There can be no doubt that conditions in the area have greatly changed in the last half a century since the last great famine period in 1899-1900. Communications have greatly improved. Labour is more mobile. Employment opportunities are now available on a larger scale and capable of being further augmented in times of scarcity. The development of irrigation has resulted in protection of crops over large areas even in the periods of very scanty rainfall. Lastly, the people have now greater resources and are more self-reliant. Buffer stocks of foodgrains facilitate the meeting of the needs of scarcity areas. Famines are not so fearful now as in the old days.

Floods

Even though monsoon inundations occur now and then in the low-lying areas, destructive floods are of rare occurrence. The most distressing floods that occurred in the past were those of 1817, 1825, 1851, 1882, 1954 and 1961. In these years, due to heavy rainfall in the Western Ghats, the Krishna and Bhima rivers were in spate inundating cultivable fields on their

banks. As these two rivers have their origin in the Western Ghats, periodical floods during the south-west monsoon period are of common occurrence. Though floods are common in these two rivers during monsoon months, the damages resulting from these floods are normally not very heavy. At present, there are no flood control measures along these rivers. The Upper Krishna Project, when completed, will help control the floods to a certain extent.

CHAPTER V

INDUSTRIES

Introduction

THE industrial backwardness of the district of Gulbarga is apparent even to a superficial observer. Let alone the expert, even a lay man can find, from conditions in the market, that the district is considerably dependent on outside industries for even common utilities which are usually locally made in many other districts. Excepting Gulbarga town, where there are a few engineering units and a solitary large-scale textile mill and Shahabad, where there is a large cement unit, the process of industrial development has yet to begin in the other parts of the district. Modern factory-type small industries have yet to develop. Even the existing engineering units in Gulbarga town are not well-equipped and are dependent on job orders for their sustenance. It has been aptly pointed out that "the district has remained economically very backward in spite of two Five-Year Plans. The insolvency of the district's agriculture and the total lack of industrial enterprise, coupled with the absence of factors of production such as capital, individual initiative and technical skill, all point to the backwardness of the district and the need for immediate measures for initiating a process of economic development".* In the course of this chapter, an attempt has been made to analyse the position of existing industries as also the district's resources which can be exploited for industrial purposes.

Industries in early days

There were no industries on a large-scale in the ancient days or during the medieval period. It was only in 1883 that a large-scale textile factory came into existence in Gulbarga town. In 1925, a large-scale cement factory was started at Shahabad. These two factories have withstood a variety of vicissitudes. Indigenous industries of a cottage tpye seem to have flourished in the district even during the days of the Rashtrakutas, their prosperity depending on the needs of the local population. Weaving was the prominent cottage industry providing employment to many. It has

*Report on Economic Survey or Gulbarga District by the Small Industries Service Institute, 1961, p. 3.

been said that, "In most of the common industries the rule was production for the local market .... Spinning and weaving formed a major industry which occupied considerable numbers, and guilds of weavers were in a flourishing condition and took an active part in many local concerns."[1] Information on conditions pertaining to industry became more copious and precise after the foundation of the Vijayanagar and Bahmani kingdoms, thanks to the many interested foreigners who visited these kingdoms and left records of what they saw. Abdur Razzak (1445) described the kingdom of Vijayanagar as an area extremely large and thickly peopled, and its king as "possessing greatness and sovereignty to the highest degree, whose dominion extends from the frontiers of Serendib (Ceylon) to the extremities of the country of Kalbergah."[2] The Imperial Gazetteer of India published in 1908 throws a little light on the early industries and the relevant paragraphs are quoted below.

" The most important mineral found and worked extensively in the district is laminated limestone, which occurs at Shahabad on the Great Indian Peninsular Railway, Chittapur on the Nizam's Guaranteed State Railway and also in the Gulbarga and Seram taluks. The stone is known as Shahabad stone, from the name of the place where it was first quarried, and is employed largely in roofing and flooring.

" Among hand industries are the weaving of cotton and silk saris and cloth of gold and ordinary cotton cloth and cotton tweeds. In the Chincholi taluk, the shepherds make blankets of very superior quality valued at from Rs. 10 to Rs. 50, which are durable and water-proof. A large spinning and weaving mill, two miles west of Gulbarga, began working in 1886 .... There is one ginning factory in the Seram taluk."

Next in importance to the above old-time industries were pottery, carpentry, goldsmithy and blacksmithy, which were a part of the old rural economy all over the district. Most of these industries were organised on a domestic or cottage basis and were in the hands of a class of hereditary artisans. Production was intended mainly for the requirements of the village and there was very little of export of the finished products to places outside the village. These industries, though found even now, are not as prosperous as they were in the early days. Two important causes which have brought about the decline of rural and cottage industries are firstly that machine-made goods have come into the market and secondly that the taste of people has changed as a result of contact with other regions. Hand-woven

1. "A History of South India from Pre-historic Times to the Fall of Vijayanagar" by Prof. K. A. Nilakanta Sastri 1955, pp. 316-17.

2. Ibid, p. 322

cloth gave place to mill-made cloth partly because the latter looked better but mainly because it was cheaper. A long list may be made of articles used in a house-hold which once were got from particular localities within the district but which now have been replaced by a different style of articles from outside but serving the same purpose. Large earthen pots with carvings on the top were used even in affluent households in the past for storing water. Earthen pots are not at all used by well-to-do families at present. The goldsmith, who used to make ornaments for all people—rich and poor—in the village, is now approached only by the poorer families. The more well-to-do buy jewels of finer workmanship in the large cities. Another cause for the decline of the rural industries may be attributed to their narrow specialisation and their confinement to particular castes. It is relevant to quote here: "If an industry is localised in small areas, or is confined to narrow sections of people, it is difficult to improve it or to arrest the course of its decay. If, on the contrary, it is widely practised and derives nothing from specially favourable conditions, it has great vitality and responds vigorously to stimulus."[1] Again "Industries which have not petrified into caste occupations but have a relation to wide human wants and average aptitudes, have a greater chance of performance than those which have a history of narrow specialisation."[2]

Large quantities of pure quartz are available in the Yadgir taluk. There are indications in some places that there were indigenous glass smelting centres in the area. In Shorapur taluk, at a place called Jamalpur, ancient furnaces and glass slags are still to be found, though at present glass is not smelted there. The most important cause for the decline of this industry might have been the importation of cheaper variety of bangles, whether of glass or lac. A population, the great mass of which was uneducated, and whose taste, such as it was, was formed by centuries of habit, was suddenly assailed by new products of a different civilisation and was unable to keep the old tastes unchanged, or to revert to them early after getting used to the new taste.

Another important industry which existed in the district from "time immemorial"[3] was salt manufacture. Edible and tanning salts were produced by methods of lixiviation of saline earth or by direct solar evaporation of brine from wells.

Yet another industry which has now decayed and which existed during the time of the Nizams was the manufacture of tassels for the fez caps. It has been estimated that nearly 500 women

1 Census of India, 1931, Vol XXV, Mysore, Part I, Report, 1932, p. 220.
2. Ibid. p 220
3. Report on the Salt Industry of Raichur and Gulbarga Districts, Department of Industries and Commerce, Hyderabad-Deccan, 1934, p. 1.

and children were employed in this industry. It is seen from records that there were four tassel factories in the district. With the changes of time and fashion, the fez caps have become rare. The raw materials required for the manufacture of tassels are not locally available and have to be imported from foreign countries and therefore this industry has completely decayed in the district.

Power Supply

On the date of States' Reorganisation (1st November 1956), the district of Gulbarga had no hydro-electric power supply. But there were just two diesel power stations, one at Gulbarga and another at Yadgir, which were set up by the former Hyderabad Government in 1936 and 1937, respectively. As the existing power was found inadequate for Gulbarga town, another generating unit was added in 1954. Two more thermal power stations were established at Chittapur and Shorapur in 1959, followed by the setting up of another thermal station at Aland in 1960. Chincholi was also electrified by erecting another thermal station in 1962. Besides, more generating units were added to the existing three thermal stations at Gulbarga. Yadgir and Chincholi. In all, there were six thermal power stations in Gulbarga district in 1962, as shown below :—

1.	Gulbarga—	two units of 293 kw. one unit of 308 kw. two units of 150 kw.
2.	Yadgir—	one unit of 140 kw. one unit of 200 kw.
3.	Shorapur—	two units of 50 kw.
4.	Chittapur—	two units of 50 kw.
5.	Aland—	two units of 50 kw.
6.	Chincholi—	one unit of 50 kw. one unit of 25 kw.

Thus, before the commencement of the Frst Five-Year Plan, Gulbarga and Yadgir were the only two electrified places in the district, and practically no progress was made in this direction during the said Plan period. It was during the Second Five-Year Plan that Shorapur, Chittapur and Aland were electrified, while the beginning of the Third Five-Year Plan saw the electrification of Chincholi.

In addition to the above six places, Shahabad town was also electrified in July 1959 and the power was being supplied by the cement factory's generating unit. The total number of street lights is Shahabad town in 1962 was 200 and there were no domestic connections. The M. S. K. Textile Mills at Gulbarga had also a power house attached to the factory. A new power plant with the permission of the then Government of Hyderabad was installed in 1938 in the factory premises in place of the old one which was

not working properly. This power house which was called the "Bhima Power House" was also supplying electric power to Gulbarga town.

Hydel Power Supply

The power thus generated in the various diesel generating stations was very meagre and was not at all adequate for the progress and promotion of industries in Gulbarga district. Hence the Government of Mysore decided that the hydel power generated at the Tungabhadra Left Bank Generating Station at Munirabad should be supplied immediately to Gulbarga. Accordingly, the work of running a 110 K.V. double circuit transmission line from the generating station at Munirabad to Sindhnoor over a distance of about 55 miles was taken up in the year 1961-62 and was completed by the end of 1962. The transmission line as well as the master unit sub-station at Sindhnoor were commissioned into service on 22nd December 1962.

The next phase of work was the laying of the 110 K. V. transmission line from Sindhnoor to Raichur, a distance of another 55 miles, and constructing a master unit sub-station at Raichur. This work was also completed during June 1963 and the transmission line was charged and hydel power supplied to Raichur thereafter. Immediately afterwards, the construction work of the 110 K. V. transmission line from Raichur to Gulbarga *via* Shahapur and Shahabad was taken up, covering a distance of about 112 miles and with special river-crossing structures of a height of about 200 feet across the Krishna river with a span of nearly 2,300 feet. A master unit sub-station of 10 M. W. capacity was also constructed at Gulbarga. The entire work was completed by March 1964 and the transmission line as well as the master unit sub-station at Gulbarga were commissioned into service on 29th March 1964. Thus, Gulbarga town was supplied with hydel power, for the first time, in March 1964 along with Aland, which was also simultaneously connected with a 33 K. V. transmission line from Gulbarga.

In the meantime, another master unit sub-station of 10 M.W. capacity was also constructed at Shahabad and power to an extent of 4,000 KVA was supplied to the Shahabad Cement Works in addition to the supply of 2,000 KVA to the A.C.C. Engineering Works, also at Shahabad. The master unit sub-station at Gulbarga, apart from supplying power to the town, also provided electricity to an extent of nearly 2,000 KVA to the M.S.K. Textile Mills in the outskirts of Gulbarga town.

Soon after, 33 K.V. transmission lines were laid to Seram and 11 K.V. sub-transmission lines to Malkhed, Dandothi and Chittapur and these places were electrified during July 1964. The 33 K.V. transmission line from Shahapur to Yadgir and the 11 K.V. transmission lines from Shahapur to Shorapur and Khanapur and

from Yadgir to Gurmatkal were completed and commissioned into service during December 1964.

From Seram, the 33 K.V. transmission line was extended upto Chincholi during September 1965, while the other 11 K.V. transmission lines were further extended from Shahabad to Firozabad, Kirani, Tonasenhalli and on to Jevargi. Further radial lines were also constructed to Kadaganchi, Koralli, Kadalhangarga, Narona, Gola, Mahagaon and Kamalapur and all these places were electrified during the same period. Then again, the construction of 11 K.V. transmission lines from Shahapur to Gogi and from Shahabad to Wadi and Chittapur was also completed by September 1965, followed by the extension of the transmission line from Chincholi to Ainoli, Degalmadi and Polikapalli. In the meantime, another 33 K.V. transmission line was constructed from Gulbarga to Afzalpur *via* Gobbur and Chowdapur.

Thus, by the end of the year 1965, 33 towns and villages in Gulbarga district were supplied with hydel power, and work was in different stages of progress in respect of another 25 towns and villages. There is also a proposal to supply power to Hyderabad by constructing a 110 K.V. transmission line from Shahabad *via* Seram.

The Mysore State Electricity Board has plans to electrify 300 towns and villages in Gulbarga district by the end of the Fourth Five-Year Plan, apart from providing power to about 6,000 irrigation pump sets. The Board proposes to invest about three crores of rupees to supply power for agricultural purposes alone, *i.e.*, for irrigation pump sets, in Gulbarga district in the Fourth Plan period.

The following statement indicates the number of different types of electrical installations in the various towns of Gulbarga district as at the end of October 1965.

Sl. No.	*Name of place*		*Domestic lighting*	*Commercial lighting*	*Heating installations*	*Street lights*	*Irrigation pump sets*
1.	Gulbarga	..	4,259	2,014	16	1,632	26
2.	Yadgir	..	680	130	12	290	16
3.	Aland	..	477	232	..	582	25
4.	Chincholi	..	223	78	..	268	..
5.	Shorapur	..	613	116	1	349	.
6.	Chittapur	..	440	181	1	274	6
7.	Shahapur	..	89	87	..	200	..
8.	Seram	..	61	12	..	194	1
9.	Shahabad	..	164	121	..	393	..
10.	Jevargi	.	11	26	..	53	..
11.	Kamalapur	..	92	35	..	97	2
	Total	..	7,109	3,122	30	4,332	76

Cement Industry

The Shahabad Cement Works, one of the largest of the several cement factories owned by the Associated Cement Companies Limited, is situated at Shahabad on the Bombay-Madras line of the Central Railway. This cement factory started working in 1925 with Messrs. Tata Sons as managing agents. It started production with an annual capacity of 40,000 tons of cement and in 1929, the plant was expanded to give an output of 1,25,000 tons per year by installing a second rotary kiln. In 1936, the factory was taken over by the Associated Cement Companies Limited, who now own and run a chain of cement factories. The Shahabad Cement Works had the distinction, before the re-organisation of States, of being the only cement factory in the Hyderabad State and has now become one of the four cement factories in the New Mysore State, the other three being situated at Bhadravathi (Shimoga district), Bagalkot (Bijapur district) and Ammasandra (Tumkur district). The Shahabad Cement Works which was started in 1925 with one rotary kiln of a rated capacity of 40,000 tons a year has steadily grown and to-day, it has five kilns with an aggregate capacity of 5,08,000 tons of cement a year. While expanding the factory, measures have been taken to modernise the plant in order to achieve efficiency.

The Shahabad Cement Works obtains its principal raw material—limestone—from its quarries situated some three miles from the factory. This raw material which is required for the cement industry is not only available in plenty in the vicinity of the present factory but also in Shorapur taluk. Coal is used as the principal fuel in the manufacture of cement, and is obtained from collieries of Kotna, Singareni, Nowrozabad, Asansol and Ranigunj. Iron ore is obtained from Hospet and Banasandra. Gypsum of the required quality is obtained from Ariyalur and Pullambadi. The red clay comes from the quarry about a mile away from the factory. These quarries have been almost completely mechanised. Limestone and murrum are transported from the quarries to the Works by means of a broad gauge electric railway system owned and operated by the Associated Cement Companies.

As regards transport facilities, the factory is very close to the Shahabad Railway Station which is on the Madras-Bombay broad gauge railway. Wadi, which is also not far off from Shahabad and which is a junction from where a railway line branches off to Secunderabad, has added to the transport facility of the factory. The factory is located in an ideal place which has all the necessary facilities for the location of industrial units.

At the Works, the limestone boulders as received from the quarry are broken up in the crushers. The resulting small pieces of stone are then taken on rubber-belt conveyors either to

storage or direct into the raw mill stone hoppers. The red clay, locally called as *murrum* is similarly crushed and then transported to the *murrum* hoppers. These materials are then fed into the mills in regulated quantities along with the required quantities of water to be ground into a thin paste called 'slurry'. This 'slurry' is pumped through pipe lines to storage silos where it is corrected to the required composition. It is then ready for the next operation and is taken into the mixer basins where it is constantly agitated by means of compressed air and mechanical stirring. From the mixer basins, it is pumped into the kilns in automatically regulated quantities. The kilns are mounted at a slight incline and while 'slurry' is fed into the upper end, finely pulverised coal is injected with a blast of hot air under pressure and is burnt at the lower end of the kiln to produce a 'burning zone' with a temperature of about 2700°F.

When it enters the kilns, the 'slurry' first comes into contact with the hot gases and promptly loses its moisture. The dry material as it moves further down the kilns comes into contact with increasingly hotter gases and undergoes calcination. When the calcined material enters the 'burning zone' of the kilns, it fuses and at the same time undergoes a complete chemical transformation and finally emerges from the discharge end of the kilns in the form of hard dark green pellets called 'clinker'.

The clinker is transported by means of shaking conveyors and bucket elevators to the crane storage from where an electrically operated overhead travelling crane delivers it to the cement mill hoppers. The final stage in the process is the grinding of clinker together with a small proportion of gypsum (about five per cent) in the cement mills. (The gypsum helps to determine the time the finished cement will take to set). The resulting cement is conveyed through pipe lines by fluxo-transporters actuated by compressed air to large cement storage silos. Cement from the silos is conveyed by air-slides and bucket elevators to automatic packing machines. These machines discharge the packed bags on to the belt conveyors from where the bags are loaded into wagons placed on either side of the packing platform. At every stage of the manufacturing process, hourly quality control tests are carried out on the various intermediate products. The cement is also subjected to various tests as required by the Indian Standards Specification.

From 1961 to 1965, about 25,000 metric tonnes of oil-well cement was also manufactured at the Shahabad Works and dispatched to the various oil fields belonging to the Oil and Natural Gas Commission.

The following is the financial picture of the Associated Cement Companies*.

Year	*Total invested Capital (Capital Plus Reserves and surplus)*	*Fixed Assets*	*Current Assets (including investments)*	*Value Realised*	*Dividend Declared*
	(Figures in lakhs of Rupees)				
	Rs.	Rs.	Rs	Rs.	Per cent
1956–57 ..	2,626-37	2,107-45	1,950-31	2,239-01	9 **
1957–58 ..	3,038-70	2,435-67	2,015-39	2,534-87	8.5 **
1958–59 ..	3,017-24	2,720-67	1,743-93	2,637-78	11 **
1959–60 ..	2,985-95	2,630-38	1,800-84	2,793-50	12 **
1960–61 ..	2,976-90	2,636-02	2,115-84	3,087-41	12 **
1961–62 ..	2,960-18	2,678-49	2,342-48	3,506-94	12 **
1962–63 ..	3,184-91	2,849-18	2,731-38	3,745-20	12 **
1963–64 ..	3,183-90	2,994-12	2,931-01	3,921-07	12 **
1964–65 ..	3,181-46	3,190-72	3,113-31	4,173-76	12 **

**Subject to Income-tax.

The total profits earned by the Associated Cement Companies Ltd., during 1963-64 were Rs. 2,13,83,283 and Rs. 1,70,11,829 during 1964-65.

The following figures show the production of cement from 1940-41 to 1964-65 by the Shahabad Cement Works.

Year	*Production (tons)*
1940-41	1,42,000
1945-46	1,55,000
1950-51	1,76,000
1955-56	3,73,494
1960-61	4,84,000
1964-65	5,68,000

The total number of persons employed by the Works at the end of March 1964 was 1,720. The cement produced by the Shahabad factory is marketed through authorised selling agents mainly in

* The Associated Cement Companies, Ltd., own and operate 16 cement factories, two collieries, one firebricks and one refractory and engineering works. Each year only a combined profit and loss account is prepared and separate profit statements for individual factories are not made out.

Mysore, Andhra Pradesh and Maharashtra State. The Government have recently permitted the Associated Cement Companies to expand the existing capacity of portland cement production at Shahabad by another 65,328 tons a year. The Government have also issued necessary industrial licences to the Engineering Works of the company, also at Shahabad, to take up other new lines of production. Industrial licences to manufacture mining and electrical machinery with an installed capacity of 3,000 tons per annum, cement-making machinery with an installed capacity of 12 units per annum, solvent extraction plants of a capacity of six to eight units, paper and pulp-making machinery of an annual value of Rs. 80 lakhs and electrical overhead travelling cranes upto 50 tons capacity have been issued. The Shahabad Cement Works, with its present activities and future programmes detailed above. will soon be one of the largest cement plants in the country and being situated at a strategic point as far as the market is concerned, will play an important part in the country's development.

In addition to the Shahabad Cement Works, the Associated Cement Companies Ltd., have also decided to establish another cement factory at Wadi, five miles from Shahabad with an initial production capacity of four lakh tons per annum. The necessary industrial licence has been granted to the Company and it is expected to start work shortly. The factory is expected to commence production in 1968.

Besides, the Cement Corporation of India Ltd., a Government of India undertaking, has also proposed to set up a cement factory at Seram, 31 miles from Gulbarga, with an installed capacity of four lakh tons of cement per annum. This capacity is proposed to be maintained in two stages, the first stage to commence from 1969 with a production of 3 lakh tons and the second stage thereafter. It will be a private limited company in the public sector. As regards the plant and machinery for the factory, it is stated that the entire plant to be imported would cost over Rs. 3 crores and equipment worth about Rs. 30 lakhs would be acquired from indigenous sources. The requirements of power and water of the factory are estimated at 7,000 K.W. and 10 lakh gallons per day respectively. No foreign collaboration is envisaged in setting up this factory.

Textile Industry

The Mahboob Shahi Kulburga Mills Co., Ltd., Gulbarga, was established as early as 1883. Messrs. Sabhapathy Iyah and Akhilandayya, who hailed from Bangalore, approached the Nizam's Government for a *Sanad* to establish a cotton spinning and weaving mill at Gulbarga. The Government granted a *Sanad* in the name of Sabhapathy and Company and it was registered in Madras on 19th July 1883 under the name and the style of the " Mahboob Shahi Mills of the Kulburga Mills Company, Limited "

with an authorised capital of Rs. 12 lakhs divided into 2,400 shares of Rs. 500 each. The foundation-stone of the Mills was laid on 10th January 1884 A legal flaw having been discovered in regard to the constitution, the company had to be wound up, reconstituted and again registered in Bombay on the 24th August 1888 under the Indian Companies Act of 1882, under the name and style as obtains today. In March 1888, an agreement was concluded between Mr. Sabhapathy Iyah and Khan Bahadur Shapoorji Edulji Chenai, whereby the latter was admitted to the company as a partner in the form of managing agent. Mr. C. Sabhapathy Iyah practically severed his connection with the company from 1889 onwards, when Khan Bahadur Shapoorji Edulji Chenai became the sole proprietor. He was associated with the company for 37 years. After his death in 1924, his sons became the managing agents and managed it for 3 years. This textile mill came under different managements till 1960, and when it was about to founder on the rock of financial stringency, the Government of Mysore secured controlling interests in this mill as a pre-requisite for advancing initially Rs. 15 lakhs towards the working capital for enabling the mill to pay off its immediate financial commitments. The Government of Mysore is now holding 51 per cent of the shares of the company and so far, it has advanced loans to an extent of Rs. 112 lakhs, exclusive of the debentures purchased by the Mysore State Financial Corporation and the Government of Mysore to the tune of Rs. 14½ lakhs.

The mill started working with a modest complement of one engine, three boilers, 5,000 spindles and 200 looms with necessary preparatory machinery In 1906, the boilers were found to be incapable of supplying sufficient steam and hence they were replaced by three water tube boilers. Between the years 1906 and 1909, the company invested about three lakhs of rupees on renewals and replacements of machinery, installation of humidifiers and electricity. At the end of 1909, there were 24,500 spindles and 350 looms in the mills A fourth boiler was purchased in 1913. In 1916, there were 29,000 spindles and 360 looms and a supplementary engine was secured with which the major portion of the weaving section was worked. The humidification plant that was installed in 1906 was old and quite worn out; hence an up-to-date humidification plant was purchased in 1922 By this time the number of looms in the mills had gone up to 390. In 1926, the antiquated roller cards were replaced by flat cards to enable turning out of better yarn. The mills had now 100 carding engines and 77 ring spinning frames with the preparatory machinery The number of looms and spindles in 1953 were 598 and 28,336 respectively which increased to 606 looms and 35,000 spindles by 1962.

As regards the financial position of the company, it was started with less than five lakhs of rupees of paid-up capital; but the

agents borrowed money and invested about 16½ lakhs of rupees on machinery and buildings at the outset. During the first period of 27 years, the gross profits earned amounted to Rs. 21,46,835 without providing for depreciation. The total amount of depreciation written off during the period amounted to Rs. 4,85,635. The cost of buildings and machinery up to the end of 1914 amounted to Rs. 20,85,270. Between 1915 and 1923, the gross profits earned rose up to Rs. 60,06,418. The period between 1927 to 1938 was a period of steady progress and plant and machinery worth rupees 13 lakhs were added. From 1940 to 1953, the mill worked satisfactorily and in 1940, 1943, 1945, 1947, 1950 and 1953, the company declared dividends to its share-holders. After 1953, the factory was working without any profit or at times with losses till 1962 when it was closed for want of finances. The Government of Mysore stepped in to restart the mills in 1963. On 30th September 1964, the total assets of the concern were worth Rs. 47,79,282.

The total number of persons employed in 1965 was 2,600 with a monthly wage bill of about Rs. 3 lakhs. The following were the production figures of the mills from time to time :—

Year	*Yarn in lbs.*	*Cloth in yards*
1922	2,186,805	886,705
1938	4,922,746	2,171,905
1952	5,205,569	14,884,502
1960	4,697,783	13,099,743

Initially, the factory was producing only coarse cloth, but now finer varieties of cloth are also being produced.

Oil Mills

Narayandas Brothers' Oil Mills is another fairly large-scale industry in Gulbarga, located in the Nehru Ganj area on Humnabad road. Started as a small-scale industry in the year 1952, the mills gradually developed into a large-scale industry and registered as such in the year 1964, with the installation of a solvent extraction plant of 50 tons' capacity. It employs on an average about 120 persons per day.

During 1963-64, the mills extracted 2,286 tons of groundnut oil and produced oil cakes to the extent of 3,380 tons. Besides, 648 tons of solvent oil out of cake and 8,000 tons of de-oiled cake were also produced during the same year.

Government Branch Press

A Government Branch Press was established in Gulbarga in January 1963, with an initial investment of about Rs. 1.47 lakhs and a staff strength of 65, headed by a Deputy Director. This press at present undertakes the Government printing works of the four districts of Gulbarga, Raichur, Bidar and Bellary. Printing

works of the semi-government establishments of this region are also undertaken on chargeable basis.

To start with, the press was located in the jail barracks attached to the Central Prison, Gulbarga. A new and up-to-date building, costing about Rs. 10 lakhs, is being constructed on the M.S.K. Mills road, which is expected to be completed by the end of 1966. An eight-acre plot of land has also been acquired on the Jevargi road for putting up quarters for the staff working in the press. There are also proposals to instal more machinery and equipment and correspondingly increase the staff-strength of the press after it is shifted to the new building.

Small-scale Industries

As stated already, modern factory-type small-scale industries have not developed to any appreciable extent in Gulbarga district. It is only in Gulbarga town that there is some activity in this sector. The most important of the small-scale industries in the district, which are mostly concentrated in Gulbarga town, are the manufacture of agricultural implements, saw mills, furniture manufacture, automobile workshops, engineering repair shops, tyre-retreading and leather footwear making. Details regarding investment, employment and output of some of the small-scale industries in the district are summarised below.

SMALL-SCALE INDUSTRIES IN GULBARGA DISTRICT (1965)

Sl. No	*Type of Industry*	*No. of Units*	*Persons employed (approximate)*
1	General Engineering	11	50
2.	Automobile Workshops	5	30
3.	Agricultural Implements and Builders' Hardware.	24	120
4.	Wooden Furniture	8	45
5.	Saw Mills	18	90
6.	Tyre Retreading	4	16
7.	Leather Footwear	30	120
8	Blacksmiths	24	50
9	Electroplating	1	2
10.	Soap Manufacture	6	25
11.	Bakery and Biscuits Manufacture	2	25
12.	Cart Making	18	54
13.	Cement Spun Pipes and allied products	2	30
14.	Steel Furniture	1	8
15	Fuller's Earth Processing	1	8
16.	Confectionery	1	5
17.	Electrical Repair Shops	4	14
18.	Printing Presses (other than Government Press).	15	50

General Engineering

The small units in the general engineering group manufacture oil engines and automobile spare parts against orders and also accept repair of oil engines and general welding and turning work. There were 11 units in the district in 1965 of which 9 were located in Gulbarga town, one at Yadgir and one at Shahapur. The capital investment of these concerns amounted to about Rs. 1,25,300. They had provided employment to 50 persons and the value of their output amounted to Rs. 56,400 during 1964-65. These units depend on job orders and the machines employed by them are obsolete and require replacement. A few of the units which manufacture pistons get their casting from foundries in Sholapur and Belgaum. The workers in these units are not technically well qualified and are also not well-equipped to take up new lines of manufacture. Added to these, the financial inadequacy is acting as a factor inhibiting the progress of this industry. In view of the fact that there is demand for the products of these units, the prospects of expanding the production activity of these workshops are fairly bright. However, these units require technical guidance, training facilities for workers and financial assistance both for the purchase of equipment and for meeting working capital needs, so that they can modernise their workshops and take up manufacture of new products instead of confining themselves to repair services. It is also necessary that these workshops should be able to obtain castings locally instead of depending on the foundries outside the district. At present there is only one such foundry at Gulbarga in the private sector.

Automobile workshops

There were five small-scale automobile workshops in the district, three at Gulbarga and two at Yadgir. These units had an investment of about Rs. one lakh. They had provided employment to 30 workers and turned out an output valued at about Rs. 40,000 during 1964-65. These units are not well-equipped at present and require additional machinery. There is very good scope for the expansion of these workshops as motor vehicle traffic in Gulbarga district is very heavy. In view of the meagre railway communications in most parts of Gulbarga and Bidar, the dependence on road transport is very great and this is expected to increase substantially in the future. Although the existing workshops are meeting the service requirements of the vehicles in the district to some extent, for any major repair, the vehicles are at present taken to Hyderabad. If, therefore, the existing workshops are assisted by way of additional machinery and equipment, they will be able to provide better automobile workshop facilities.

Agricultural Implements and Builders' Hardware

There were in all 24 units belonging to this category, and the products manufactured by them included agricultural implements, such as ploughshares, spades, sickles, axes and buckets and builders' hardware such as door and window fittings and gate-hooks, pots etc. The total invesment in these units in 1964 amounted to

Rs. 2.9 lakhs with an employment of 120 persons and output valued at Rs. 3,21,000 approximately. All the 24 units manufacturing agricultural implements are centered in Gulbarga town. These units may be better described as traditional blacksmithies using hand-operated implements and tools. The production activity is not carried out on modern lines. As a result, the quality and finish of the implements and other products made by them are not up to the mark. Not only is there need for a considerable degree of mechanisation of the units, but the workers employed by them also require training in modern techniques of production. The market prospects for agricultural implements and builders' hardware are quite bright and the demand for these products is expected to increase substantially. There is, therefore, good scope for the expansion of the activities of the existing units and also for the setting up of a few additional units for the manufacture of modern agricultural implements and builders' hardware.

Wooden furniture

There were eight small-scale units in Gulbarga town engaged in the manufacture of wooden chairs, tables, stools, cots, racks etc. Their investment was estimated at Rs. 94,000. In 1965, they employed 45 persons and produced furniture valued at Rs. 1,50,000 approximately. The demand for wooden furniture is quite large and raw materials required for the manufacture of the same are also available in the Gulbarga district. The production activity of these units needs to be considerably mechanised and for this purpose the units require power-operated wood-working machinery. In order to improve the quality of the products, the units require a wood-seasoning plant which would help these units not only to expand their output but also to improve the quality of the products they are now making.

Saw Mills

The number of saw mills in the district was 18 and of these, all but four were located in Gulbarga town. The remaining four were located in Shorapur and Aland taluks. These units had invested about Rs. 2 lakhs. The number of persons employed by them during 1965 was 90 and the output turned out was valued at Rs. 1,75,000. As indicated earlier, the market prospects for furniture are quite bright and some of the well-organised among the saw mills can also take up the manufacture of wooden furniture and wooden door and window frames required in the house-building industry.

Tyre Retreading

There were four units in Gulbarga town engaged in retreading of tyres. These had an investment of about Rs. 32,000 and employed 16 workers. The value of retreading service provided in 1965 was estimated at about Rs. 1.5 lakhs. In veiw of the heavy motor vehicle traffic in the district, there is considerable scope for the expansion of these units.

Leather Tanning

Leather tanning is an important industry for which the necessary raw materials are available in good quantities in the district. But the industry has not been well-organised and developed. A recent survey of the tanning industry conducted by the Small Industries Service Institute has shown that raw materials such as hides and skins and tanning materials such as avaram bark (tadwad bark) and myrobalan are available in the district but instead of being used locally, they are collected by agents and exported to Hyderabad and Madras. On an average, about 1,000 cow and bull hides and 2,000 sheep and goat skins are available per month. The hides which are collected in the district at cheap prices are of good quality and fetch a higher price in Madras. At present, only ox hides are tanned by local tanneries and sold to foot-wear manufacturers. Tanning in the district is carried on in a crude form as a part-time avocation by those who are otherwise employed in agriculture. There are no organised tanneries, large or small. In most places, tanning is done in natural shallow pits formed below ground level and well-constructed cement pits are few. The tanners as a class are financially poor and unable to buy raw hides and tanning materials. Each cottage unit tans about two or three hides per month and sells them to mochis on bazaar days. Efforts are, however, being made by the State Government to organise the tanners into industrial co-operatives. The Mysore State Khadi and Village Industries Board is also assisting the development of the industry. The Board provides financial assistance to societies, both in the form of grants and loans, for the organisation of flaying centres and village model tanneries. It also gives subsidy upto Rs. 200 to village artisans for the construction of new tanning pits and a subsidy to the extent of Rs. 40 is also given for the repair of old pits. Till 1965, 15 industrial co-operatives of tanners had been formed in the district and several of these had already availed themselves of the Board's assistance.

Leather Footwear

There were, in 1965, 30 units, all located in Gulbarga town, engaged in manufacture of chappals and shoes. These units had invested about Rs. 7,000 and employed 120 workers. During 1965, an output valued at about Rs. 1.5 lakhs was turned out by these units. The market prospects for leather footwear are quite good and Gulbarga chappals are reported to be quite popular in the surrounding areas. These units, however, require technical guidance in improving the quality of their products. They should also consider the manufacture of other leather goods such as suit-cases in addition to footwear, as there is good demand for the same. One of the problems of these units is, however, the non-availability of good quality leather which they are now importing from outside the State. If the tanning industry is well-organised and the hides available in the district are tanned locally, this problem can be met to a great extent.

Handloom Weaving

The handloom weaving industry, as the premier cottage industry, has contributed its share in building up the economy of Gulbarga district. It was estimated that there were 16,500 handlooms in the district in 1965, with a total artisan population of about 20,000. More than 60 per cent of the looms had been brought into the co-operative fold at the end of the Second Plan period. Twenty-one cotton weavers' societies, six woollen weavers' societies and five silk weavers' societies had been organised with a view to developing the unorganised handloom industry on healthy lines and also for channelising both technical and financial aid to the industry. The weavers' co-operative societies had been sanctioned considerable amount of loans as working capital as well as share capital, both from the cess fund and also from the scheme sponsored by the Reserve Bank of India.

As the weavers were generally using outmoded tools and implements, various improved appliances such as take-up motion attachments, dobbies and warping drums have been supplied to them. Assistance has also been provided for conversion of pit looms into frame looms. The Mysore State Cotton Handloom Weavers' Co-operative Society arranges for the purchase and distribution of the equipments to the weavers' co-operative societies. The following statement gives the details of power looms allotted to the cotton handloom weavers' co-operative societies of Gulbarga district under 'power looms scheme' as at the end of 1964-65 :—

Statement showing the details of power looms allotted to the Cotton Handloom Weavers' Co-operative Societies of Gulbarga district under Power Loom Scheme as at the end of 1964-65.

Sl. No.	Name of Weavers' Co-operative Society to which power looms were allotted	Total Number of power looms allotted	Total Number of power looms erected	Total Number of power looms commissioned	Power loom loan advanced in the form of machinery	Working capital and share capital loans advanced	Financial Assistance made for preparatory equipment		Power connection charges advanced as grant	Servicing charges advanced as grant
							Loans	Grants		
					Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
1.	W.C.S. Mominpura ..	25	11	..	62,500	..	..	2,100	..	720
2.	„ Kamalapur ..	25	12	6	62,500	12,800	2,100	2,100	..	720
3.	„ Aland ..	24	24	5	62,500	15,911	2,625	2,625	.	900
4.	„ Hiroli ..	12	12	6	30,000	13,050	2,100	1,050	..	360
5.	„ Madan Hipparga	25	25	25	62,500	12,800	2,100	2,100	..	720
6.	„ Rangampet ..	15	6	6	37,500	15,632	2,625	2,625	900	900
7.	„ Thimmapur ..	6	..	..	15,000	..	..	..	..	..
8.	„ Khanapur ..	6	6	..	15,000	..	..	1,050	..	360
9.	„ Shahapur ..	12	..	..	30,000	..	..	..	..	..
10.	„ Gogi ..	15	..	..	37,500	..	..	2,625	..	900
11.	„ Chandarki ..	25	12	12	62,500	12,758	2,100	2,100	..	720
12.	„ Gurmatkal ..	12	6	..	30,000	..	..	1,050	..	360
13.	„ Chittapur ..	4	4	..	10,000	..	..	525	..	180
14.	„ Mudhol ..	25	12	..	62,500	..	..	..	..	..

To promote the marketing of handloom goods by the weavers' co-operative societies, assistance had been given to set up sales depots and eight such depots had been started in the district till 1962. The following statement shows the production, sales, number of registered looms and number of persons engaged in the handloom industry in the district in 1962 :—

	Registered looms	*Production in yards*	*Sales in yards*	*Rebate sanctioned*	*No. of persons engaged*
				Rs. P	
Cotton looms	10080	23,62,783	27,78,062	1,21,959–47	23,251
Woollen looms	832	3,707	2,957	.	794
Silk looms	470	32,047	19,859	..	365

Further, seven dye-houses had also been sanctioned to the weavers' societies. In addition to supplying various improved tools and appliances to the weavers' societies, two housing colonies, one for the Gogi cotton weavers' society consisting of 100 houses and another for the woollen weavers' society of Konkal with 24 houses had also been sanctioned. The total expenditure incurred on several handloom improvement schemes in the district during the Second Five-Year Plan was Rs. 16.87 lakhs. A provision of Rs. 28.39 lakhs had been made for the development of handloom industry in this district during the Third Five-Year Plan period. Among other things, two dye-houses and a calendering and finishing plant were to be set up in the district.

Beedi manufacture

During 1964-65, there were eight beedi factories registered under the Factories Act in Gulbarga district. About 400 persons were employed in these factories, the number of women workers being larger than the number of men workers. The process of beedi-making is very simple. The principal ingredients in the manufacture of beedies are tabacco flakes called "bhuka" and the ,wrapper leaves, commonly known as "tendu" or "tembhuri" leaves. The quality characteristics desired in beedi leaf are that it should be of medium thickness, pliable, large-sized and greenish yellow or light copper-red in colour. The wrapper leaves are first cut into rectangular pieces of the desired size. These are soaked in water to make them pliable. The wrapper is held by the worker in his left hand and the tobacco mixture is placed on it and spread evenly along the line. The wrapper is then rolled between the fingers into a conical shape. The lower end is closed by bending it inside with the fingers while the tapering end is tied with a piece of thread. The annual production had been estimated at about 30,000 lbs. which were consumed mostly in the districts of Bidar, Raichur and Gulbarga. There were two Beedi Workers' Co-operative Societies, one each at Chittapur and Yadgir with a membership of 140 and 41 and a share-capital of Rs. 700 and 610 respectively.

Registered Small-scale Industrial Units

A system of collecting important particulars of smaller industrial units in order to help the unorganised small-scale industries to prosper by giving them the needed assistance, wherever necessary, in the shape of financial aid, technical advice, supply of basic raw materials and other commodities was started by the Directorate of Industries and Commerce during 1960-61. The small industrial units were requested to get themselves registered in the said Directorate and to furnish quarterly production statistics in the prescribed *pro forma* so as to enable Government to have a clear picture of the position of small-scale industries in the State. Up to December 1965, 51 small-scale industrial units had got themselves registered in Gulbarga district. Of these, 14 were basic metallurgical industrial units, 12 engineering industrial units, six processing industrial units, seven food, drink and tobacco industrial units, four mineral industrial units, four chemical industrial units, one textile unit and three miscellaneous industrial units. Most of these industrial units, *i.e.*, nearly 40 of them, were concentrated in Gulbarga town and its outskirts, while the rest were dispersed in Wadi, Yadgir, Shorapur, Aland, Saidapur and Chincholi.

Industrial Co-operatives

A number of industrial co-operatives were organised in the district under the successive plans with a view to helping small industrialists of the district in various ways. In 1964-65, there were, in all, about 60 industrial co-operative societies in the district for village oil, leather, handicrafts and other miscellaneous types of industries.

Rural Artisan Training Institutes

Prior to the re-organisation of States, there were three Artisan Training Institutes, one each at Kamalapur, Yadgir and Gulbarga. These were the Rural Arts, Crafts and Industries Centre at Kamalapur and the Village Industries Development Centres at Gulbarga and Yadgir. In 1959, the Village Industries Development Centre at Gulbarga was closed down and the other two centres were re-organised and renamed as the Rural Artisan Training Institutes. Thus, there are now only two such institutes in the district, one each at Yadgir and Kamalapur; the latter has a branch at Mahagaon. These training centres had their own syllabus and method of training before 1959. With a view to bringing about uniformity in the system of training and syllabus, the department was reorganised and the above two institutes were reshaped in 1959. The Rural Artisan Training Institute at Kamalapur imparts training in smithy, carpentry and leather stitching and the branch centre at Mahagaon, in the manufacture of glass beads.

The training institute at Yadgir imparts training in smithy, carpentry, tailoring, woollen weaving, leather stitching and cotton weaving. Candidates for training are recruited annually and each candidate gets a stipend of Rs. 30 per month.

Model Carpentry and Smithy Centre, Gulbarga

The Model Carpentry and Smithy Centre, Gulbarga, was started in the year 1958 and it is the only model centre functioning in the district. Till March 1965, 199 candidates, in all, were trained in this centre in modern methods of carpentry and smithy. The total value of the products made in the centre upto the end of March 1965 was Rs. 42,771 while the total value of the sales effected upto the same period was Rs. 36,491. A scheme for starting an upgraded smithy centre was taken up during the Second Plan period and the centre started functioning in October 1965.

Training-*cum*-Service Centre for Mechanical Workshop Practice

A Training-cum-Service Centre for mechanical workshop practice was started in Yadgir in April 1965. Though this centre was sanctioned in 1959 under the Second Five-Year Plan, the erection of building and machinery was completed only during 1964-65 and it started functioning soon after. Besides imparting training, common servicing facilities are also provided to the artisans in this centre on a nominal payment. The duration of training is one year and 15 candidates are being trained at a time. Each trainee is paid a stipend of Rs. 30 per month during the period of training.

Training Centre for manufacture of footwear

To provide training to cobblers in the manufacture of quality footwear utilising the latest mechanical equipment and techniques, a training centre has been established in the district. The centre has already started functioning in the Industrial Estate at Gulbarga. Provision for common servicing facilities to cobblers on nominal payment has also been made in the centre. The duration of training is one year and 15 trainees are admitted at a time. Each trainee is paid a stipend of Rs 30 per month during the period of training.

Pile Carpet Training Centre, Gulbarga

With a view to extending training facilities to the local artisans in the manufacture of pile carpets incorporating the latest designs, a training centre was started in Gulbarga in April 1961 under the handicrafts scheme. Upto 1964-65, 45 candidates, drawn from both Gulbarga and Bidar districts, had been trained in this centre.

Handicrafts Emporium, Gulbarga

In order to give a fillip to the development of handicrafts, a Handicrafts Emporium was started at Gulbarga in February 1960. This scheme which was initiated by the All-India Handicrafts Board is meant for the benefit of rural and urban handicraft artisans and to find a market and give wide publicity for their products. The emporium keeps handicrafts articles, on consignment basis, received from several Government institutions, industrial co-operatives and private individual artisans from all over the State. It was decided during 1961-62 to make purchases of articles from several societies and individuals to achieve better sales and for this purpose, an amount of Rs. 15,000 was expended.

During the same year, a sum of Rs. 13,700 for recurring expenditure and Rs. 10,000 for purchase of handicraft articles were allotted. During the Third Five-Year Plan, a sum of Rs. 0.55 lakh had been provided to meet the expenditure of the emporium at the rate of Rs. 0.11 lakh per year. The administrative control of this emporium was transferred to the Mysore State Handicrafts Development Corporation in 1964.

Home Industries and other Social Welfare Institutions

The Department of Industries and Commerce is giving monthly grant-in-aid to home industries institutions in the State for undertaking home industrial activities such as tailoring, embroidery, knitting, rattan work, mat and cloth weaving. Besides, equipment like sewing machines, cloth and mat-weaving looms have also been supplied to some of the institutions. There were three Mahila Mandals in Gulbarga and the State Government were giving monthly grant-in-aid to each of them.

Machinery Supplied on Hire-Purchase Basis

Machinery worth about Rs. 2.85 lakhs was supplied to about twenty units in Gulbarga district on hire-purchase basis upto 1965. The names of the industries and the value of the machinery supplied along with the number of industrial units under each industry are detailed below :—

Sl. No.	*Type of Industry*	*No. of industrial units supplied*	*Value of machinery supplied*
			Rs.
1.	Steel Furniture	2	15,000
2.	Machine Shops	6	37,324
3.	Bucket Manufacture	1	20,000
4.	Printing	2	4,400
5.	Saw Mills	3	30,564
6.	Miniature Bulbs	1	3,500
7.	Utensils	2	7,000
8.	Fuller's Earth Processing	1	1,43,000
9.	Tailoring	1	5,000
10.	Automobile	1	20,000
	Total	20	2,85,788

Industrial Estates

The growth of small-scale industries has been greatly hampered by the absence of proper locational facilities, power, water supply and communications. To overcome these difficulties, a number of industrial estates with different types of worksheds providing accommodation for the planned installation of machinery have been established all over the State. In the district of Gulbarga, two industrial estates, one at Gulbarga and another at Yadgir, were sanctioned.

The Industrial Estate at Gulbarga was sanctioned at an estimated cost of Rs. 5.13 lakhs with 16 worksheds, during the Second Plan period. All the worksheds were completed by 1965 and a few of them had been occupied by some industrial units. Concession to the extent of 42 per cent of the economic rent is given to the occupants of the worksheds in the estate and they are charged a rent at seven paise per sq. ft. of covered area per month for a period of two years with effect from the date of occupation of the sheds. It is proposed to increase the rent after two years at the rate of one paisa per sq. ft. per month every year till the economic rent of 12 paise per sq. ft. per month is reached. This arrangement will greatly help the small-scale industrialists, particularly in the initial stages.

An Industrial Estate at Yadgir with ten worksheds at an estimated cost of Rs. 2.33 lakhs had also been sanctioned and construction of worksheds was under way.

Development Areas

Development areas are plots of developed lands to be made available to the small-scale industrial units so that they have the advantage of common services and other facilities like good site, electricity, water supply and sanitation. The sites would be available to small-scale industrialists either on outright sale or on hire-purchase basis, so that they can put up their own worksheds according to approved designs. During the Third Plan period, one such development area was being located in the district.

The industrial estates and development areas were being provided with a common facility centre or a workshop equipped with modern machinery, which the small industrialists could not afford to purchase by themselves. The centre, in addition to affording services to the industries on payment of nominal service charges, will also disseminate technical know-how to the workers engaged in the small-scale industries located in the estate.

Co-operative or Private Industrial Estates

The establishment of two or three industrial estates or development areas in a district will not completely solve the ever-increasing problem of accommodation of the small-scale industrialists and, therefore, with a view to establishing more industrial estates, the Government formulated proposals to render all possible

help and encouragement to industrialists who came forward to establish such estates either on a co-operative or a joint-stock basis.

Industrial Potentialities

In the district of Gulbarga, agriculture is the mainstay of the people and the proper utilisation of agricultural produce will help industrial development. Among the agricultural raw materials of economic importance may be mentioned groundnut and cotton. The total area under these crops during 1963-64 was 2,04,482 acres and 1,81,111 acres, respectively. The neighbouring districts, *viz.*, Raichur, Bidar and Bijapur, are also known for these crops. At present, there is only one textile mill at Gulbarga and a couple of oil mills in the district. There is ample scope for starting more textile mills, ginning factories and oil mills in the district.

An analysis of the resources and the demand for different types of industrial products in Gulbarga district has revealed possibilities of setting up a number of small-scale industries. The development potential of some of the mineral and other natural resources is considerable. As indicated earlier in this chapter, leather tanning is an important industry which is at present neglected but can be placed on a sound footing provided the required organisational efforts are forthcoming. The district has a fairly large bovine population and the hides recovered in Gulbarga are of very good quality. They are now exported to Madras and Hyderabad where they fetch a much higher price than that at which they are bought locally by commission agents. Tanning materials such as avaram bark and myrobalan are also available in sizeable quantities. It is clear, therefore, that there is scope to organise several small-scale tanneries in the district.

Various types of timber such as teak, satin wood and matti are available in the district. They are generally auctioned to forest contractors who take them out of the district. As the demand for furniture in Gulbarga district exceeds the present supply, it will be profitable for furniture manufacturers to expand their production by utilising the timber available locally. There is scope for a few more additional units to come up in several parts of the district such as Aland, Yadgir and Seram. Some of the other wood-based industries which can be suggested for Gulbarga are electrical casings and switch boards.

Clay, suitable for the manufacture of bricks and tiles, is reported to occur in Shorapur taluk. There is, therefore, scope for starting a few tile and brick manufacturing units in this area.

Rosa grass (Cymbopogan martini) of the motia variety is reported to be available in the forests of Gulbarga district. Chittapur, Yadgir, Jevargi, Shorapur and Chincholi are the important centres where this grass is available in large quantities.

Every year, the Forest Department auctions the rosa grass which is bought by merchants who extract rosa oil by using country stills. This oil is sold to merchants in Bombay who export it to the United States and Arab countries. Since rosa oil is a foreign exchange earner, efforts could be made to extract the oil on a scientific basis. At present it has been estimated that the Forest Department is realising Rs. 30,000 annually by the sale of rosa grass to merchants who in turn are selling the extracted oil for at least Rs. 2.00 lakhs.

The important minerals which are available in the district are limestone, red ochre, quartz, Fuller's earth and potter's clay. Extensive deposits of limestone suitable for the manufacture of cement are found in Gulbarga district notably at Chittapur, Jevargi, Chincholi, Shahapur, Shorapur, Nalwar, Wadi, Shahabad, Seram and Malkhed, covering an area of at least 1,500 square miles. At present, the Associated Cement Company which has established a big cement plant at Shahabad is exploiting the limestone occurrences near Bankur on a large scale. But, as the deposits of limestone extend over vast areas in the district, they are capable of supporting a few more large-scale cement factories. Proposals are there to start a cement factory at Wadi and another at Seram as these places have all the locational advantages.

Quartz of good quality is available in Yadgir and Shorapur taluks. This is at present being exploited for export to Bombay where it is used by the glass factories. The quartz available at Arkera in Yadgir and Siddapur in Shorapur taluk is free from iron and forms an excellent raw material for glass industry. This material can be used locally if a glass factory could be set up in Yadgir town. Some of the other small-scale industries allied to the glass industry which may be encouraged are the manufacture of glass phials and scientific apparatus, as these products are currently in good demand.

A variety of limestone suitable for flooring and roofing is also available in the district in large quantities. The deposits are now being exploited by a few North Indian firms and taken out of the district. These stones are of exceptional quality and are very decorative, owing to their pleasing colours. As there is a good demand for flooring and roofing slabs, a few local entrepreneurs can, with profit, take up the manufacture of polished stone slabs.

A small outcrop of soapstone extending for about half a mile in length and two hundred yards in width is found about two miles to the north of Malakappanahalli in Yadgir taluk. The rock forms a suitable material for soapstone utensils, and the broken and half-made pieces found there point to the existence of such an industry in the past.

Fuller's earth, which is a bleaching agent for vegetable and mineral oils, occurs at Korvi, Sulepet, Chima-Idlai, Dastapur, Navandgi, Kodli, Gunhalli and other villages in Chincholi taluk and at Sugoor in Chittapur taluk. The main use of this material is in refining petroleum and in filtering and clarifying lubricants. It is also used in the purification of water and in removing odours from oily waste material. Trials on bleaching of raw lubricating oil have shown that the Korvi earth is similar to imported earth, at present being used in the country for the bleaching of lubricating oils. It has been found to be the best in the sense that it can be used for various purposes in the natural condition unlike other earths which require processing. Investigations regarding the exact deposits of Fuller's earth in the district were in progress and the State Government was to spend Rs. 50,000 during the Third Five-Year Plan period for this investigation.

Agricultural implements of improved variety are in great demand in the district. There are a few units which are already making agricultural implements by following the old methods of production. In addition to assisting the modernisation and expansion of the existing units, a few additional units for the manufacture of improved implements can be set up in the district.

In spite of the industrial potentialities described above, the general economic climate of the district is one of backwardness. The reason for this is not the lack of natural resources but the lack of spirit of venturesomeness; the absence of basic necessities such as power (which has now been overcome), transport, water and other facilities, is also one of the reasons retarding industrial growth in the district. The objectives of industrial policy will therefore have to be to remove the deficiencies pointed above and create a climate in which industrial development can take place. The establishment of industrial estates in the district will serve the twin purposes of assisting the existing industries to get suitable factory space and also help starting of new industries.

Welfare of Industrial Labour

Gulbarga district being industrially backward, any account of welfare work in the district will necessarily relate to the two big industrial concerns, the Shahabad Cement Works and the M.S.K. Textile Mills, Gulbarga.

In accordance with the progressive policy adopted by the Associated Cement Companies towards its employees at all its factories, the Shahabad Cement Works affords to its employees amenities of a good standard. As regards housing, the factory had its own colony consisting of over 800 quarters (provided with free electricity and water supply) in which about 30 per cent of the employees were housed. Clean concrete roads run through the entire colony and sanitation and hygiene were given proper attention. As regards the educational facilities, a well-equipped primary

school, with about 560 children, was maintained by the Shahabad Cement Works for imparting free education to the children. Adult literacy classes were also arranged for the employees. As regards health, a hospital with 16 beds was attached to the factory which provided free treatment to the employees and their families. To provide recreation to the employees, a sports club was being maintained and facilities were provided for cricket, football, hockey, volleyball and tennis and indoor games such as billiards, table-tennis, etc. A reading room and library were important features of the club. Attached to the club, which was housed in a spacious building was a children's park with slides, swings and see-saws. An up-to-date and well-equipped cinema had been provided as an additional amenity. There was also a fine swimming pool. Besides these, amenities which were statutory obligations such as canteen, rest hall, creche, latrines and bath-rooms inside the works premises had also been provided. The Welfare Benefit Fund was also being maintained by the management to advance small loans, free of interest, to the needy employees. As regards the labour welfare organisations, there were two Works Committees (one for the works and another for the central workshop), three Safety First Committees (one for the works, one for the quarry and one for the Central Workshop), one Welfare Benefit Fund Committee and one Canteen Committee. Besides these, there were two co-operative societies; one was an employees' co-operative society and the other, a housing society.

Of great importance for the successful working of a mill is adequate welfare of the operatives in the mill; and this fact has been amply realised by the management of the M.S.K. Mills. The officers of the company had been provided with free, well-built and furnished quarters situated in the vicinity of the factory. Small quarters were also there providing accommodation to some of the low-paid employees. A school was attached to the factory to provide free education to the children of the employees. Free medicine and medical attendance had been provided and a dispensary was located within the mills' compound. A creche and a canteen had also been maintained by the management.

CHAPTER VI

BANKING, TRADE AND COMMERCE

Part A—Banking and Finance

History of Indigenous Banking

THE system of ancient indigenous banking in the district of Gulbarga, though obscure in details, was certainly far removed from the organised banking facilities of the present day. In the old days, the wealthy indigenous bankers dominated the credit structure of the rural parts. They used to take deposits of money from the public and were lending it to traders and commission agents. It was the small "sahukar" who was lending money to the cultivators. These sahukars were essentially traders and dealers and operated on their own funds or funds borrowed from the indigenous bankers. These bankers, in addition to making advances against mortgage of property, were also giving loans on stocks in godowns. But on the whole, their contribution directly towards financing cultivators was very small and quite a large amount of money was lying idle with them during the slack season. Even in the busy season, they were not very generous in investing their funds with the sahukars lest they should be locked up for a considerable period. The flow of capital into the interior, just when it was largely wanted, was thus not quite adequate. It was not until 1939 that this handicap was overcome, when the first branch of a joint-stock bank in the district of Gulbarga was established, *viz.*, a branch of the Central Bank of India. This bank and similar other banks which were established later took bankers of repute into their confidence and appointed them as their agents for the supply of money to the sahukars. This necessitated, of course, a thorough change in the outlook of the joint-stock banks with regard to their investment policy which, in addition to profit-making, was also meant to help the district's economy as part of their duty.

In tracing the history of indigenous banking, one cannot help saying that the money-lenders' credit, instead of helping the farmer, was often the cause of his ruin. There was no doubt that the credit was necessary for the farmer. Due to the seasonal nature of his occupation, his income was periodical, but his expenditure was practically constant throughout the year. Ordinarily, in

theory, he needed credit only for productive purposes. But the farmer borrowed more often to ward off the wolf of hunger from his door than to improve his lands. The rate of interest at which he borrowed was very seldom less than 12 per cent and often 18 to 24 per cent. The money-lender, having an elastic conscience, followed such methods of business as were seldom above board. Once a farmer fell into his clutches he seldom got out of them.

Banking in the modern sense was almost unknown in the district of Gulbarga before 1917, when a Central Co-operative Bank at Gulbarga, which is now called the Gulbarga District Central Co-operative Bank, was established. Thereafter, mortgage banks came into existence and these were confined to towns. They were very much like the loan offices of Bengal or the "Nidhis" of Madras, catering mostly to the urban middle classes. They were like ordinary commercial banks, except that they gave and took a higher rate of interest. Money was lent on the security of immovable property and against gold. What was called "lots system" was practised under which less money was advanced than was wanted and a bond was executed for a higher amount. Repayment was spread over a long period and was in easy instalments. This system of borrowing was very popular with the artisan and petty merchant classes since it suited their needs and pockets.

In course of time, several established banking institutions from outside were invited to open branches in the district. Prior to the opening of those branches, a bank by the name of Saraswati Bank was established in 1922 at Gulbarga; this was not only the earliest joint-stock bank in the district but also the only bank which had its registered office within the district. This bank had to be closed down on 19th December 1958. In 1932, the Gulbarga Urban Co-operative Bank was established. The Central Bank of India was the first outside joint-stock bank to open a branch at Yadgir in 1939; it opened its second branch at Gulbarga in 1950. The State Bank of Hyderabad established in 1944 a branch at Gulbarga; it also felt it necessary, on account of the existence of a cement factory at Shahabad, to open the second branch in 1945 at Shahabad. Since 1961, five more branches were opened, one each at Shorapur (28th December 1961), Gulbarga City (in Asif Gunj—14th May 1962), Yadgir (1962), Seram (1963) and Aland. A branch of the Canara Industrial and Banking Syndicate (now the Syndicate Bank Ltd.) was opened at Gulbarga on 19th December 1956. The Canara Bank opened a branch at Gulbarga on 12th August 1957. The Punjab National Bank also opened a branch office at Gulbarga in the year 1960. Thus the growth of modern banking was particularly rapid during the last twenty-five or thirty years.

Role of Money-Lenders

Rural indebtedness is widely prevalent in the district. The agriculturists who are in need of money often go to private money-lenders and get their credit at heavy rates of interest. The rate of interest was not less than 12 per cent and often 18 to 24 per cent. In the pre-modern age, the villages in the district were little kingdoms in themselves, isolated from one another due to the lack of means of communication and transport; they were self-sufficient in so far as their major needs were concerned. Production was carried on more for their own use than for exchange. Land had very little commercial or market value. The village was ruled by a strong local panchayat where everybody knew everybody else. Justice was tough and ready, and in practically all the cases, the facts were known to all. Even in those days, the sahukar played a very important part in the rural economy of the village. But there was no sanctity attached to his dealings or contracts in the literal sense and adjustments were made according to circumstances. Neither was it in the interest of the money-lender to expropriate the farmer from land because land was not a commercial asset in those days nor was it possible for him to do so owing to the traditions and customs of the village. His interest lay in financing the farmer and getting a good return. The British system introduced a number of changes; law and justice began to be firmly established, but unfortunately those who administered justice generally belonged to the towns and were divorced from village life, having little experience of the conditions prevalent in the villages and the traditions followed by them. Having been trained in the British law, they generally adhered to the strict legal aspect of the cases and insisted that contracts must be honoured, forgetting that the contracts were more often "cooked" than real. The improvement in the means of communications and transport brought the law courts nearer and the decay of the panchayats compelled people to resort to them. The village economy under the stress of changing circumstances began to crumble. The payment of land revenue in cash necessitated the sale of crops outside the villages resulting in the broadening of markets and the gradual introduction of exchange economy. The village money-lender was released from the control of the panchayats. The land had begun to acquire value and became an asset which he was keen to possess. He therefore employed all possible means to acquire the land of the farmer, even becoming more liberal in the provision of loans to the indigent cultivators.

The result of this state of affairs was that a large majority of farmers in the district remained in debt, which was mostly of the unproductive type, and this debt was bequeathed from father to son as an inheritance.

Rural Indebtedness

In 1937, the Government of Hyderabad decided that a thorough enquiry should be made regarding the extent of in-

debtedness. Mr. S. M. Bharucha, an officer of the Hyderabad Government, was appointed to conduct this enquiry. Mr. Bharucha decided to adopt a sample method of enquiry and sample villages were selected in every district. The result of the survey disclosed that when all the pattadars in the selected villages (those who were in debt and those who were free from debt) were taken into account, on an average, there was a debt of Rs. 187-8-0 per pattadar and family; but when only those pattadars who were in debt were considered, on an average, the debt was Rs. 390-13-10 per indebted pattadar. The burden of debt worked out at Rs. 10-0-8 per acre whereas the average revenue assessment then was Rs. 1-13-0 per acre. On the population basis, the debt per agriculturist worked out to Rs. 30. The average debt per acre worked out at Rs. 10-0-8 per acre or Rs. 187.5 per pattadar. But it should be remembered here that more than half the number of pattadars (whose number included non-agriculturists, money-lenders, lawyers, officers and pensioners who possessed land) were found free from debt. This was to be expected because nearly one-third of the occupied land in the villages was owned by men who were not agriculturists by occupation. The real incidence of debt, therefore, was almost double the figures given above, whether it be the average debt per acre or per pattadar or per unit of population. It is clear that in 1937 that (a) every acre of land had a burden roughly of about six times the assessment, (b) that every agricultural family in the selected villages was indebted to the extent of Rs. 390-13-10 and (c) the agricultural debt showed an incidence of Rs. 30 per head. The real burden of the raiyats was that of interest, a burden which they felt acutely. Rates of interest varied in proportion to the credit and the status and standing of the borrower and also in proportion to the fertility and value of his land. In cases of well-to-do and punctual borrowers, the sahukar was lending at 9 to 12 per cent interest. At the other extreme, where land was poor, or the debtor was already involved upto his neck, he was to pay 24 to 30 per cent. It was calculated that the average rate of interest in Gulbarga Suba was 20½ per cent.

The causes of indebtedness were the small size of holdings, accentuated by sub-division and fragmentation due to laws of inheritance, recurring loss of cattle, insecurity of crop, extravagant expenditure on marriages and other domestic expenses, litigation, and the money-lender's system of business. The evil of small holdings was aggravated by fragmentation of land due to the law of inheritance providing for an equal share in the property to all the sons of a father. It is pertinent to quote here Sir Frederick Nicholson who said that "the necessary complement of the small holder of land is the money-lender. The result of small holdings aided by fragmentation is not only small incomes but wasteful cultivation and greater expense. Cultivators have to go round a number of pieces of land at a distance from one another,

have to employ labour uneconomically and to leave strips in every field uncultivated, with the result that the crop and income both suffer, as the master's eye cannot be everywhere." Small holdings of land were thus the direct cause of indebtedness. The next important cause of indebtedness was the recurring loss of cattle due to bad years now and then. Another cause was the insecurity of crop due to the capricious nature of the monsoon. Further, litigation and marriage expenses were also causes for the agricultural indebtedness in the district. It has been mentioned in the old records that, in a good year, the raiyats' debt for vakils' fees and court expenses was a big item in the sahukars' books. The worst aspect of a loan for litigation, like one for marriage, was that it was unproductive and therefore was more difficult to repay. Many of the people of the lower classes were also addicted to drinking. The habit of going in for loans for purchasing bullocks, or for payment of land assessment to Government was another cause of indebtedness.

The professional money-lenders were spread all over the district and it has been recorded that, on an average, one money-lender had ten clients. In some places, the sahukars divided villages among themselves for the business of money-lending and grain dealing. The *Laoni* system and the *Lagwad* system of advancing money were also prevalent among money-lenders of the district. Under the *laoni* system, the money-lender was advancing a certain amount to the cultivator before the sowing season, on the condition that as soon as the harvest was ready, the debtor would return the loan in kind at a price which was stipulated to be less than the future market price of the next harvest, by a certain percentage which was between 15 to 40, according to the creditworthiness of the cultivator. When the harvesting season was near, the sahukar sometimes did not allow the crop to be moved till his claim was settled by the debtor. The *laoni* system was also called the " Satta or speculation system as it was based on speculation as to the price that the commodity was likely to fetch at harvest time. Under the *lagwad* system, the sahukar advanced to his client expenses of weeding when the crop was coming up. The sahukar charged two per cent per month because the loan was to be repaid in a few weeks or months, as soon as the harvest was in. If the agriculturist was unable to pay, he was charged compound interest.

Relief of Indebtedness

In view of the growing seriousness of the problem of indebtedness, the Government of Hyderabad made several legislative enactments and adopted several remedial measures to alleviate the distress of the indebted agriculturists. One important measure designed to relieve the immediate distress of the cultivator was the system of extending "Taccavi" loans to him for agricultural operations. The usual rate of interest charged was six to six and a half per cent and this was subject to reduction

according to circumstances. For instance, during the famine of 1919, the rate of interest on "Taccavi" loans was greatly reduced. Apart from this, the Government was advancing annually, through the Agricultural Department, "Taccavi" loans for the purchase of seeds and agricultural implements. Loans of this nature were free of interest for the first year and were charged only six per cent interest thereafter.

In 1933, the Government realised that the lands of hereditary agriculturists were passing into the hands of money-lenders so rapidly that, if it did not intervene promptly, an alarmingly large number of agriculturists would be reduced to the condition of landless labourers on their own land. With a view to checking this exploitation, the Land Alienation Regulation was drawn up in 1936 and was introduced as an experimental measure in the two Marathwada districts of Aurangabad and Osmanabad. The beneficial effects of this regulation in those two districts enabled the Government to extend it to all the other districts. Later on, this temporary regulation was made a permanent enactment. Further, to relieve the cultivator of his old debts, the Government passed the Debt Conciliation Act in 1938. The purpose of this Act was to effect a reduction in the cultivator's debt (a large part of which consisted generally of accumulated interest for several years) through conciliation. Conciliation Boards were established in the State and the Boards were authorised to declare all the debts paid, if the money-lender refused to submit a detailed statement of the debts to the Board. But that clause was ineffective in the case of those money lenders who had usurped the mortgaged land of their debtors. For in such cases, the Board had no power to get the recalcitrant money-lenders round. But according to an amendment, the first Taluqdars were authorised to take over such lands and arrange for their temporary cultivation. In 1938, the Gulbarga district had one such Conciliation Board which was functioning satisfactorily till the end of 1941. In the year 1938, the old Government of Hyderabad promulgated the Money-Lenders' Act, 1938. This Act aimed at checking the various glaring malpractices of the money-lenders in the State. It enforced the compulsory registration and licensing of money-lenders and fixed the rates of interest for future dealings. This Act fixed the highest rate of interest for secured debt at nine per cent (simple interest) and for unsecured debt at 12 per cent (simple interest). Compound interest was prohibited by that Act. The Act also directed all the money-lenders to submit at the end of every year, a statement to each of its debtors showing therein the amount of the capital and interest payable. Under another clause of the Act, the money-lender was required to issue receipts invariably for the amounts paid by his debtors. This Act was replaced by the Mysore Money-Lenders' Act of 1962 which came into force with effect from April 1, 1965. The actions of money-lenders throughout the State are now controlled and governed by this uniform Act.

As per 1961 Census, there were 69 licensed money-lenders in Gulbarga district.

As explained already, the need for introducing adequate legislation to discourage private money-lending was met from time to time. Most of the difficulties of the farmers arose out of the ease with which they were able to borrow. The remarks made by the Royal Commission on Labour in India about the farmers applies equally to the district of Gulbarga. The Commission remarked : " The fatal weakness in the present system is the comparative ease with which the worker can borrow sums which he has little prospect of being able to repay. His lack of education tends to prevent him from taking long views, and the offer of cash to the extent of a hundred or two hundred rupees for the thumb print is almost irresistible."

Loans and Advances

Increased agricultural production to meet short-falls and occasional scarcity has received the earnest attention of the State Government. In planning for increased production, particularly foodgrains, incentives to agriculturists form the basic factor. In addition to grant of special loans for grow-more-food schemes, the traditional methods of giving subsidy to the cultivators as an incentive for further effort, have come to stay ; the age-old taccavi loans, as also irrigation and subsidy loans have all become familiar features. The following table indicates the extent of financial help rendered during 1964-65 to the cultivators of Gulbarga district.

Sl. No.	*Name of Taluk*		*Taccavi loans*	*Irrigation well loans*	*Subsidy*
			Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
1.	Gulbarga	..	30,000	1,29,000	30,000
2.	Aland	..	51,000	1,43,000	3,000
3.	Afzalpur	..	20,000	80,000	5,000
4.	Chittapur	..	25,000	37,500	6,500
5.	Seram	..	55,000	59,000	15,000
6.	Yadgir	..	52,000	8,000	1,500
7.	Shorapur	..	25,000	47,250	8,000
8.	Shahapur	..	77,000	50,000	5,000
9.	Jevargi	..	40,000	37,500	2,000
10.	Chincholi	..	25,000	33,750	1,000
	Total	..	4,00,000	6,25,000	77,000

Joint-Stock Banks

The following table gives the places in the district of Gulbarga having banking offices (other than co-operative) and the names of banks having offices in each of these places in 1965.

Name of Place		Name of Bank	Nature of the office
Gulbarga ..	1.	The State Bank of Hyderabad	Branch Office
	2.	Do (Asif Gunj)	do
	3.	The Canara Bank Ltd. ..	do
	4.	The Syndicate Bank Ltd., ..	do
	5.	The Central Bank of India ..	do
	6	The Punjab National Bank ..	do
Yadgir .	1	The Central Bank of India ..	do
	2.	The State Bank of Hyderabad	Pay office
Aland .		The State Bank of Hyderabad ..	Branch office
Shahabad		The State Bank of Hyderabad ..	do
Shorapur .		The State Bank of Hyderabad ..	do
Seram		The State Bank of Hyderabad* ..	do

It would be seen from the above table that there are no registered offices in Gulbarga district, all of them being branch offices of institutions registered elsewhere.

The Hyderabad State Bank was constituted under the Hyderabad State Bank Act XIX of 1940; the bank was renamed as the State Bank of Hyderabad in 1956. The main purpose for which this bank was established was to stabilise the currency (Hali Sicca of the Nizam's dominions), undertake Government (treasury) transactions, provide facilities for remittances, collections, finance, trade and advance against agricultural produce. There were, in 1965, seven branches of this bank within the confines of the district. An office of the bank was established at Gulbarga on 26th November 1944 and another at Shahabad on 10th November 1945. A branch was opened at Shorapur on 28th December 1961 and another branch at Gulbarga (Asif Gunj) was established on 14th May 1962. In the same year, a pay office of this bank was opened at Yadgir also followed by another branch office at Seram in 1963 and yet another one at Aland. The above offices are providing all types of banking facilities like deposits, remittances, collections, discount of trade bills and advances against agricultural commodities and raw materials. In addition, there are safe deposit lockers at the Gulbarga and Shahabad branches and a currency chest at the Seram branch.

*This branch transacts also treasury business and maintains currency chest.

Various schemes of deposits to suit the public are in operation ranging from an ordinary savings bank to five-year fixed deposits, thrift deposits and cash certificates. Schemes have been drawn up to allow for different forms of savings to suit different classes of people and others to allow for an income from an initial deposit. The bank advances against different kinds of approved commodities, from Government promissory notes to the usual agricultural commodities like oil-seeds, pulses and cotton. With the establishment of warehouses, agricultural and industrial marketing societies, small-scale industries and industrial estates, the bank has undertaken to help these enterprises.

The Central Bank of India, which was established in 1911 at Bombay, has two branches in Gulbarga district, situated at Gulbarga and Yadgir. The Yadgir branch was opened in 1939 and the branch office at Gulbarga was opened in 1950. These two, being prominent places in the district, attracted the attention of the Central Bank of India and the branch offices in these two places are catering for the financial needs of the people of the two towns.

The Canara Industrial and Banking Syndicate, now called the "Syndicate Bank, Ltd.,", which was incorporated at Udipi in 1925 to finance cottage industries, took up, after three years, commercial banking and began to expand its activities by establishing branches. The district of Gulbarga has one branch of this bank, which is situated at the district headquarters town. This branch which was opened there on 19th November 1956, besides catering to the needs of traders and industrialists, provides deposit schemes to promote small savings. There is also a cumulative deposit scheme which is a monthly savings scheme. The pigmy deposit scheme which is a daily deposit scheme where savings are collected at the doors of the depositors is a speciality of this bank. Loans on commercial products to merchants and transport contractors, on gold ornaments and approved securities to the community as a whole, are also granted by this bank.

In 1906, a band of enthusiasts started at Mangalore a 'nidhi' with the name "The Canara Hindu Permanent Fund Ltd.", which was reconstituted in 1910 into a regular bank and was named "The Canara Bank Ltd." A branch of this bank was opened at Gulbarga on 12th August 1957 with a view to meeting the financial needs of the people of the district, to instil the habit of thrift and to give financial assistance to the businessmen to run and improve their business. This branch is not merely advancing money on all types of marketable securities, but is also financing industries on a long-term basis.

The Punjab National Bank which was started at Lahore in April 1895 by a group of enthusiastic and enterprising persons who keenly felt the need of such an institution in the economic circumstances of the time and which now has its head office at Delhi, opened a branch at Gulbarga in 1960. This branch, besides its usual banking transactions, is advancing loans against commercial commodities.

Co-operative Movement

Though the co-operative movement was started in British India during the regime of Lord Curzon in 1904 when the first Co-operative Societies Act was passed, it was in 1914 that the movement was started in the ex-Hyderabad State, of which Gulbarga was a district till 1956, with the object of improving the economic condition of the people, especially that of the agriculturists. The Co-operative Act No. II was brought into force in 1914 and it was in 1915 that a systematic effort was first made to organise co-operative credit societies with a Central Bank at Hyderabad. The first District Central Co-operative Bank was established in 1917 and that was at Gulbarga. Among the various economic difficulties with which the agriculturists were faced, lack of capital was regarded to be the most acute. The co-operative movement, therefore, confined its activities for a long time to providing cheap capital to the agriculturist Although the success gained in this limited field of action during the first three decades since the inception of the movement was fairly satisfactory, the movement did not improve the lot of the agriculturist by raising his standard of living. The causes for this slow progress of the co-operative movement were many. The greatest defect was the lack of knowledge of the principles and methods of co-operation in those who were brought into its fold. More often than not, the rural economy of the place and the social structure of the people, particularly that of the village communities, were disregarded by the sponsors of the movement. Co-operation was preached as a doctrine of moral philosophy rather than as a system of practical economy. The organisation of co-operative credit societies of the Raiffeisen type was attempted from 1915. It was almost impossible to convince the people of the usefulness of the movement by referring to the achievements of Raiffeisen Banks or of Danish Societies. A vast majority of the people was illiterate. But they knew very well how to look after their business, however crude their methods were. In those days, the role of sahukars was prominent and they were the immediate and easiest source of loans. But this private trade was curtailed to a large extent as a result of war-time legislation. Rural banks were started in 1938. The aim of these banks was to encourage thrift amongst their members by forming the habit of savings, to give the members loans for their legitimate needs and to make arrangements for the marketing of their produce and to supply them with their requirements. The Second World War, which came as a blessing in disguise for the co-operative

movement, fully exposed the evil effects of the capitalistic system of production and distribution. This state of affairs turned the attention of the people, as also of the Government, to co-operation as a means of solving the difficulty and as a guiding light for the future. Another feature of the co-operative organisation of Gulbarga district (which was part of Hyderabad State till the reorganisation of States) was the establishment of grain banks in 1944. These were started to encourage the saving of grains amongst small farmers and to provide them loans in the form of grain for seeds and other requirements. The year 1950-51 marked the beginning of the First Five-Year Plan and in that year there were 376 co-operative institutions in the district.

During the First Five-Year Plan, not much progress could be achieved by the Department, as a lot of spade work had to be done and as the several schemes were introduced during the latter part of the First Five-Year Plan period and no financial assistance was made available to the co-operative institutions on behalf of the State Government. However, during the Second Five-Year Plan period, significant work was done. The following statement indicates the comparative development in the co-operative sector of the district from 1950-51 to 1963-64 :—

Sl. No.	*Particulars*	*Position ending year* 1950–51	*Position ending year* 1955–56	*Position ending year* 1959–60	*Position ending year* 1963–64
1	2	3	4	5	6
1.	Number of societies—				
	(a) Agricultural Credit Societies.	366	436	302	250
	(b) Rural Banks ..	10	10	8	8
	(c) Large-sized Societies	..	..	43	43
	(d) Small-sized Societies	..	..	13	12
	(e) Service Co-operatives	..	..	221	347
	Total ..	376	446	587	660
2.	Number of Members of—				
	(a) Agricultural Credit Societies	8,307	12,095	9,983	9,827
	(b) Rural Banks ..	969	1,139	647	1,121
	(c) Large-sized Societies	..	..	8,531	10,105
	(d) Small-sized Societies	..	..	1,504	1,183
	(e) Service Co-operatives	..	..	18,801	34,489
	Total ..	9,276	13,234	39,466	56,725

1	2	3	4	5	6
		Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
3.	Paid-up Share Capital of—				
	(a) Agricultural Credit Societies.	2,34,062	2,56,407	2,79,356	3,01,945
	(b) Rural Banks .	17,707	16,897	8,697	8,395
	(c) Large-sized Societies	..	..	1,99,690	7,31,376
	(d) Small-sized Societies	..	..	33,216	42,197
	(e) Service Co-operatives	..	..	3,60,943	14,30,509
	Total ..	2,51,769	2,73,304	8,81,905	25,56,619
4.	Loans advanced by—				
	(a) Agricultural Credit Societies.	1,38,521	2,15,134	7,53,385	29,491
	(b) Rural Banks ..	12,951	8,885	1,165	..
	(c) Large sized Societies	.	..	11,01,434	9,84,652
	(d) Small-sized Societies	..	..	1,89,295	53,036
	(e) Service Co-operatives	..	..	16,49,468	28,73,301
	Total .	1,51,472	2,24,019	36,94,747	39,40,480
5.	Working Capital of—				
	(a) Agricultural Credit Societies.	10,30,119	12,22,505	14,30,871	16,26,028
	(b) Rural Banks .	51,538	52,484	26,059	24,745
	(c) Large-sized Societies	..	..	11,72,064	24,06,346
	(d) Small-sized Societies	.	..	1,60,411	2,26,039
	(e) Service Co-operatives	..	..	19,18,356	74,01,968
	Total ..	10,81,657	12,74,989	47,07,761	1,16,85,126

Co-operative Banks

There were in the district 11 urban banks and eight rural banks on 30th June 1964. The objects of the urban banks are to transact banking business and to advance loans on moveable and immoveable properties. The rural banks are located in villages and are merely dealing in credit. The Co-operative Urban Bank Ltd., Gulbarga, is the most important of the urban banks in the

district. The following is a comparative statement showing the progress achieved by the bank between 1956-57 and 1963-64 :—

	Particulars		1956-57	1958-59	1960-61	1963-64
1.	Membership	..	1,465	1,665	1,956	2,163
2.	Paid-up Share Capital	Rs.	52,931	66,757	80,123	88,268
3.	Reserve Fund	Rs.	38,734	47,365	55,895	71,700
4.	Other reserves including building funds.	Rs.	14,612	15,426	30,914	47,993
5.	Deposits (Fixed)	Rs.	78,238	1,00,500	1,12,926	1,63,836
6.	Current	Rs.	69,519	85,204	1,31,798	84,220
7.	Loans advanced	Rs.	2,45,881	3,01,472	4,08,881	1,31,795
8.	Dividend paid to shareholders.	..	5%	5%	6%	6%

The Gulbarga District Co-operative Central Bank, Ltd.

The Gulbarga District Co-operative Central Bank Ltd., which was the first District Co-operative Central Bank to be established in the old Hyderabad State, is at the same time the earliest of the banking institutions in Gulbarga district. This was established in 1917. Later on, four more co-operative central banks, *viz.*, (1) the Yadgir Co-operative Central Bank, (2) the Seram Co-operative Central Bank, (3) the Shahabad Co-operative Central Bank and (4) the Basheerabad Co-operative Central Bank came to be established in the district to serve the respective jurisdictions in the district under them with the result that the District Co-operative Central Bank at Gulbarga functioned for a limited jurisdiction. In the year 1953-54, the four Co-operative Central Banks situated in other places of the district were merged with the District Co-operative Central Bank, Gulbarga and funds were made available from the Reserve Bank of India to develop the nature and scope of its functioning as the central financing agency of the district. This bank had a total membership of 694 in 1960 which increased to 828 by 31st March 1964. Opening of branches of this bank was taken up during 1960-61 and at the close of the year 1963-64, nine branches had been opened, one each at the other 9 taluks of the district. The total paid-up share capital of the bank amounted, as on 31st March 1964, to Rs. 16,66,394 as against Rs. 6,06,525-87 on 31st March 1960. Out of the share capital, agricultural societies alone had shares of the value of Rs. 15,99,629. The total deposits of the bank were Rs. 16,90,880, Rs. 17,29,001, Rs. 15,97,810, and Rs. 21,10,936 during the years 1960-61, 1961-62, 1962-63 and 1963-64 respectively. During 1963-64, this bank advanced loans amounting to Rs. 44,06,140 to various agricultural societies, marketing and weavers' societies and urban banks.

Credit Structure

Agricultural credit has been an important factor in the rural economy of the district. During the Second Five-Year Plan, considerable attention was paid to this question and on 30th June 1964, there were, in all, 660 agricultural credit societies (including the rural banks) in the district. The following statement indicates the taluk-wise break-up of the agricultural credit societies in Gulbarga district as on 30th June, 1964:—

Name of the Taluk	*Number of Agricultural Credit Societies*				
	Village Agricultural Credit Societies (unlimited liabilities)	*Small sized societies*	*Service co-operatives*	*Large-sized societies*	*Rural Banks*
1. Gulbarga	52		48	3	1
2. Aland	16	.	40	6	..
3. Afzalpur	8	..	25	4	.
4 Jevargi	10	.	36	3	
5 Shahapur	19	2	36	4	1
6. Shorapur	31	7	36	4	..
7. Yadgir	13		10	4	4
8 Chittapur	32	1	35	4	1
9. Seram	14	2	22	4	..
10 Chincholi	25	1	29	7	1
Total	250	13	347	13	8

Marketing Societies

As envisaged under the programme of the Second Five-Year Plan, marketing societies were organised at each of the ten taluk headquarters of the district. These societies, being recent in origin and new entrants to the marketing field, they were still to undertake the business of marketing of agricultural produce. Lack of technical personnel, inadequacy of owned resources and lack of feeder primaries to ensure constant flow of agricultural produce, were some of the drawbacks of these societies which hampered their entry into the regular marketing field, except distributive activities. During 1963-64, these societies had handled agricultural produce worth Rs. 12,75,000. The main commodities handled were groundnuts, cotton and jowar. The procedure of linking credit with marketing is proposed to be enforced in the future, and this will give adequate marketing business and experience to these societies in the district.

Other Societies

Besides the above, there were on 30th June 1964 a number of weavers' and industrial co-operative societies, in addition to 22 primary consumers' co-operative societies, 9 farming societies, 20 housing societies and one wholesale store in the district.

Co-operative Planning

During the Second Five-Year Plan period, various schemes were initiated with a view to organise and re-vitalise various types of co-operatives like the District Co-operative Central Bank, large-sized societies, service co-operatives, primary marketing societies, primary land mortgage societies, etc. With a view to achieve the objects and implement the scheme successfully, the State Government sanctioned financial assistance to different types of co-operative institutions in the form of loans, subsidies and share capital and subsidies towards the managerial costs. The following statement gives particulars of Government financial assistance to the various types of societies in the district from the beginning of the Second Five-Year Plan up to 1963-64 :—

Sl. No.	*Type of co-operative societies and nature of financial assistance extended to them*	*Amount sanctioned during* 1956-61	*Amount sanctioned during* 1961-64
1	2	3	4
		Rs.	Rs.
1.	District Co-operative Central Bank Ltd., Gulbarga.—		
	(*a*) Share Capital contribution ..	50,000	..
	(*b*) Subsidy towards managerial cost (Head Office).	5,940	..
	Subsidy towards managerial cost (Branches).	9,000	31,000
	(*c*) Subsidy towards supervision cost	19,100	22,300
	Total	84,040	53,300
2.	Primary Marketing Societies—		
	(*a*) Share Capital contribution ..	2,00,000	48,000
	(*b*) Loan for purchasing trucks ..	57,500	..
	(*c*) Loan for construction of medium-sized godowns.	1,50,000	..
	(*d*) Subsidy for construction of medium-sized godowns.	50,000	..
	(*e*) Loan for construction of rural godowns.	37,500	28,025
	(*f*) Subsidy for construction of rural godowns.	12,500	8,225
	(*g*) Subsidy towards managerial cost	21,000	16,500
	(*h*) Loan for construction of office building.	..	3,000
	Total	5,28,500	1,03,750

1	2	3	4
		Rs.	Rs.
3.	Large-sized Co-operative Societies ..		
	(a) Share capital contribution ..	2,60,000	60,000
	(b) Loan for construction of small-sized godowns.	97,500	18,750
	(c) Subsidy for construction of small-sized godowns.	32,500	..
	(d) Subsidy for managerial cost ..	45,000	..
	(e) Subsidy for office building ..	1,000	..
	Total ..	4,36,000	78,750
4.	Small-sized societies—		
	Subsidy towards managerial cost ..	10,800	..
5.	Service Co-operatives—		
	(a) Share capital contribution ..	..	40,000
	(b) Subsidy towards managerial cost	82,000	1,59,600
	(c) Subvention for bad debt reserve	..	26,796
	Total ..	82,000	2,26,396
6.	Primary Land Mortgage Banks—		
	Subsidy towards managerial cost ..	990	39,566
7.	Grain Banks—		
	Subsidy towards managerial cost ..	2,800	..
8.	District Co-operative Union—		
	Subsidy towards managerial cost ..	..	10,000
9.	Departmental Credit Society—		
	Subsidy towards managerial cost ..	..	500
10.	Managerial subsidy to Housing Co-operative Society.	..	300
11.	Primary Consumers' Co-operative Stores—		
	(a) Share capital contribution ..	..	45,000
	(b) Managerial subsidy ..	..	21,600
	Total ..	..	66,600

1	2	3	4
		Rs.	Rs.
12.	Central Co-operative Wholesale Stores—		
	(a) Managerial subsidy ..	..	8,000
	(b) Share capital contribution ..	..	1,00,000
	(c) Loan for godown and purchase of truck.	..	75,000
	(d) Subsidy for godown and purchase of truck.	..	25,000
	(e) Cash credit loan ..	..	2,00,000
	Total ..	..	4,08,000
13.	Farming Co-opeative Societies—		
	(a) Managerial subsidy ..	..	2,000
	(b) Share capital contribution ..	..	16,000
	(c) Godown-*cum*-cattle shed subsidy	..	20,000
	(d) MT and LT loans ..	..	16,000
	Total ..	..	54,000
	Grand Total ..	11,45,130	10,41,162

The statement below indicates the physical targets fixed and progress achieved under the II Five-Year Plan.

Sl. No.	*Item of work*	*Targets*	*Achievements* (1956–61)
1.	*Organisation of Societies*—		
	(a) Large-sized societies ..	57	43
	(b) Marketing Societies ..	10	10
	(c) Primary Land Mortgage Societies.	5	4
	(d) Service Co-operative Soceities ..	290	289
2.	*Construction of Godown*—		
	(a) Medium-sized Godowns ..	10	10
	(b) Rural Godowns ..	5	5
	(c) Small-sized Godowns ..	13	13
3.	*Enrolment of membership by Agricultural Credit Societies.*	1,09,673	42,729
		Rs.	Rs.
4.	*Collection of share-capital by Agricultural Credit Societies.*	32,87,340	10,07,618
5.	*Advancing of Agricultural Finance*—		
	(a) Short-term loans ..	80,00,000	70,00,000
	(b) Medium-term loans ..	20,00,000	..
	(c) Long-term loans ..	30,00,000	46,075
	(d) Marketing Finance ..	10,00,000	65,080

Under the Third Five-Year Plan, the capital and other resources of the District Co-operative Central Bank, marketing co-operatives, primary land mortgage banks and agricultural primaries were further being strengthened and the organisation of processing, farming and consumers' co-operative societies was being intensified. The Third Plan (1961-66) target of setting up 228 consumers' co-operative societies had been exceeded by the 3rd year of the Plan and 238 such societies had been set up in the district by 1963-64. A Co-operative Training Institute was also established during the year at Gulbarga for training the staff of the co-operative institutions.

Life Insurance

Prior to the nationalisation of life insurance on September 1, 1956, several insurance companies were operating through their agents in the district. At present, there is a branch office of the Life Insurance Corporation which has jurisdiction over the whole of Gulbarga and Bidar districts. The branch office, which was opened as a sub-office on 21st February 1958, is situated on the Dargah Road at Gulbarga and the Branch Manager has 14 Development Officers working under him. There were in 1965, 244 active agents in the district and during 1961, 1962, 1963 and 1964, the number of agents stood at 110, 156, 123 and 196 respectively. Exact statistics of the number of policies issued and the total sum assured for the revenue district of Gulbarga are not available; as the Gulbarga Branch Office has jurisdiction also over the district of Bidar, figures are available for the two districts as a whole. This branch had completed a business of Rs. 71,41,600, Rs. 97,20,600, and Rs. 90,85,100 during the years 1962, 1963 and 1964, respectively.

There are no stock exchanges in the district.

State Aid to Industrial Development

The State Aid to Industries Board, a body set up under the State Aid to Industries Act, had advanced as loans a sum of Rs. 33,934-58 till 1960-61 to several industries in the district. Besides this, liberal loans were also given under the Community Development programme by the concerned blocks. Financial and technical aid given to individual industrial enterprises by the Government has been described in the course of the chapter on "Industries". Besides all these, the State Financial Corporation has been advancing liberal loans through the Mysore Central Co-operative Rural Industrial Financing Bank Ltd., Bangalore, which have been disbursed to individual entrepreneurs in the district through the local industrial societies. During 1960-61, 414 small industrial units had received loans amounting to Rs. 85,025. During 1961-62, the number of units which had obtained loans was only 19, the amount of loan advanced being only Rs. 6,780 besides Rs. 14,100 advanced as artisan loans.

Currency and Coinage

There is practically no authentic record of the currency of the old Hyderabad State prior to the year 1856, when Prime Minister Sir Salar Jung I began his currency reforms and founded the Hyderabad Mint. This mint received silver from the nobles and merchants and minted silver coins on their behalf on payment of the striking charges. From that time to the establishment of the new mint, the Hyderabad currency had a chequered career. The old method of manufacture of coins by hand continued upto 1893, and there were no less than 24 kinds of rupees circulating in the Nizam's dominions. The introduction of the Charminar coin in 1904, placed the Hyderabad currency on a sound footing. The main feature of this coin was the depiction of the historic building, Charminar, on one side of the coin, the other side having an inscription in the Arabic language. In the archway of the Charminar, there was inscribed the letter " Meem " being the initial letter of the name of the then ruler. The letter was changed to " Ain " later. The machine-made coins in general were called Hali Sicca, meaning current coins. Later, they were known as Mahboobia Sicca and finally as Osmania Sicca. The weight of the rupee was 172.5 grains as against 180 grains of the British Government rupee, the fineness of the coin being 816.8 per mille as against 916.6 of the British rupee. Since the Mahboobia rupees were minted, the supply was regulated so as to prevent serious fluctuations in its exchange value with the B.G. rupee. The rate of exchange for accounts purposes was B.G. Rs. 100=O.S. Rs. 116-10-8. The Hyderabad Currency Act III of 1321 F (1912), however, provided for the fixing of the maximum and the minimum rates on which the O.S. rupee could be exchanged with B.G. rupee. Exchange was regulated by Government through the branches within the State of the then Imperial Bank of India and the Central Bank of India Limited, who purchased and sold B.G. rupee drafts on their behalf at the minimum and the maximum rates fixed by notification in the *Farida* from time to time. Arrangements were made with the Central Bank of India Ltd., for opening their branches in the districts and for transacting all business in the currency of the State, as a result of which two branches of the Central Bank of India Ltd., were opened in Gulbarga district, one at Yadgir and another at Gulbarga, in 1939 and 1950, respectively. The Agricultural Market Act which was passed in 1930, through one of its sections, made it compulsory that all transactions in the market should be made in O.S. currency.

When the rupee design was changed to Charminar, the Ashrafi was altered, and half, one-fourth and one-eighth Ashrafis were turned out as also the full one. The gold coins were having the same description on the obverse and reverse as the silver coins with the word ' Rupee ' changed to ' Ashrafi '. The

Ashrafi was not a legal tender coin but was very popular and was freely used by the public for ornamental and ceremonial purposes.

Along with the old hand-made silver coins, copper coins made of an admixture of lead and copper were also in circulation. These coins were also hand-made and no two coins were alike either in size or in the impressions on them. In addition, two kinds of copper and bronze currencies were in circulation and they were the Mahboobia and Osmania coins. The Mahboobia coins were of three denominations, *viz.*, one pie coin, two pies coin and three pies coin, while there were only two denominations of the Osmania coins, *viz.*, two pies coin and six pies coin. The six and two pie pieces, coined prior to 1916 (1326 F) were cut out of sheets of pure copper. Six, two and one pie pieces minted in subsequent years were made of bronze. The copper and bronze coins which were in circulation till 1956 were machine-made and had milled edges. In the year 1919, a nickel one anna coin was introduced and was in circulation till 1956. In addition to the usual monogram in the centre and the figure 'one' on the reverse, the value was also shown in English, Kannada, Telugu and Marathi in the four corners.

Further, a very bold step was taken in the establishment in 1918 of the paper currency department under the Hyderabad Paper Currency Act of 1917 (1327 F), providing for the issue and regulation of paper currency. The first notes to be placed in circulation were one hundred rupee and ten rupee notes, followed by five-rupee and one-rupee notes in 1919. This currency system stood the test of time all through. After the Police Action in 1948 the Indian coins and currency notes were also in circulation in the ex-Hyderabad State. With the financial integration, currency became a Central subject. The Hali Sicca still remained legal tender. All Government payments were made in it and all Government accounts were kept in it, although, side by side, the Indian rupee circulated freely in the State. Assimilation of the Hali Sicca rupee with the Indian rupee was thought of as "a very desirable measure on account of the facility it would give to accounts and mercantile transactions." The Economy Committee appointed by the then Hyderabad Government in its report (1950) suggested that from 1st April 1951, Indian Government currency should be used in all Government payments. The Rural Banking Enquiry Committee recommended the bringing of all treasury and banking arrangements in Hyderabad State in line with those obtaining in other States. The Government decided to do this and as a result, the Reserve Bank of India was appointed Bankers to the State Government, while the Hyderabad State Bank was appointed Agent of the Reserve Bank within the State from 1st April 1953. The Finance Department began to work as the Agent of the Government of India for management of the Hyderabad currency. The gradual withdrawal of the Hali Sicca currency

from circulation was going on smoothly. This currency ceased to be legal tender on 1st April 1955 but the last date for its complete withdrawal from circulation was fixed as 31st March 1956. As a substantial amount of Hali Sicca currency was still found in circulation, the Central Government agreed to extend the period of withdrawal by another six months, and, on 31st December 1956, they were completely withdrawn from circulation and since then only the Indian coins and currencies are in circulation in the district, as elsewhere in the country.

The most recent currency reform was introduction of decimal coinage. This has been acclaimed all over the world as the simplest form of coinage, making calculations quicker and easier. In the modern complicated system of trade and commerce, easy conversion of money is most essential, and the decimal system, which works in multiples of ten makes the task of conversion easier. From 1st July 1957, India has changed over to the decimal coinage system and the district of Gulbarga has had the beneficial impact of this change.

PART B—TRADE AND COMMERCE

Course of Trade

Many travellers who visited the Deccan have spoken of the organised pattern of trade in the centuries during which Gulbarga flourished as the capital of many a ruling dynasty. In many of the industries of the ancient days, the aim was to produce only goods that could be sold in the local market. In view of inadequate communications and the frequent disruptions in the area, it was not possible always to send goods from one region to another. But it is apparent that individual merchants moved from place to place, from one part of the country to another, collecting information about the demand for consumer goods. Mercantile corporations akin to trade guilds were developed during the Rashtrakuta regime, and continued for many years. These mercantile corporations concentrated their attention on the internal trade in certain specified goods. Spinning and weaving, which formed the major industrial occupation of the area provided an opportunity for the traders to move cloth from one place to another. Weavers' guilds were set up wherever possible. The Warangal carpets found their way into the Gulbarga region. The metal industry and the jewellers' art which had reached a high state of development, gave shape to specialised trade pattern. The salt manufactured at the ports found its way to all places in the Deccan. After the founding of the Vijayanagar and Bahmani kingdoms, the industrial pattern in the area became more precise. Trade routes were improved and, as a result, the volume of export and import trade increased. It is of interest to note here that before the emergence of modern trade practices, the barter system was in vogue. The surplus foodgrains in a particular area were exchanged for other requisites which were to be found in another area.

Thus, a sort of organised trade system developed. During the Bahmani rule, products of cottage industry were being exported to neighbouring regions. Fine fabrics made out of muslin were exported to places in South India. After the downfall of the Vijayanagar Empire, the pattern of political and economic history in the Deccan underwent a radical change. Trade became disorganised and till about the beginning of modern times, there was no marked improvement. The barter system continued to be in vogue as also the traditional trade practices. The introduction of railways in the latter part of the last century, when a broad gauge railway line was laid between Madras and Bombay (1863-1873) through the district of Gulbarga, opened up opportunities for increased trade and commerce. In 1873, a line from Hyderabad to Wadi was laid which added to the growth of trade. Thus, Seram and Chittapur on the Hyderabad-Wadi line and Yadgir, Wadi and Gulbarga on the Madras-Bombay route became inter-connected. Agricultural products like jowar and oil-seeds were sent by rail to the north and cloth, consumer goods and spices were imported. With the advent of railways and modern motor transport and good roads, markets were established all over, though they were not regulated in the modern sense. Gulbarga became a centre of trade in the Deccan. A number of grain markets, weekly markets and other trade centres were developed.

Imports and Exports

The chief commodities which are now exported from Gulbarga district are jowar, bajra and other cereals and pulses, hides, cotton, jaggery, oil-seeds, tobacco and tarwad bark used in tanning. The chief imports are salt, salted fish, gold and silver, textiles, refined sugar, iron and steel and non-ferrous metals, cotton and woollen fabrics, matches, kerosene oil, hardware and other consumer goods. In the absence of any systematic assessment, it is difficult to estimate the exact volume of imports and exports. It is only through figures available in the regulated markets that some knowledge can be gained.

Regulated Markets

Since the First World War, the problem of marketing the agricultural produce has come into prominence ; the major problem of agriculture to-day is that of marketing. The credit provided to the farmer so that he can make improvements to his land, practise intensive agriculture or adopt a better quality seed, will be of little use to him if he is unable to secure a higher price for the better commodity that he produces. The publication of the Report of the Royal Commission on Agriculture in 1928 drew the attention of the Hyderabad Government to the significance of marketing as one of the most vital aspects of the raiyats' welfare and it is on the basis of these recommendations generally and having in view the special problems in the ex-Hyderabad State, that the Government passed the Hyderabad Agricultural Markets Act in 1930, the first piece of legislation in the whole of India that dealt with agricultural marketing in a comprehensive manner.

Decentralised bidding, prevalence of varying measures, weighment at different and scattered places, unstandardised weights, disproportionate handling charges, payment of wages in kind, untimely payments, varying units of price quotations, different filling capacities of bags, reduction in prices offered and allowances and deductions claimed, mamools and mutties, and the prevalence of secret dealings constituted a series of malpractices that existed in trade centres before the enforcement of the Markets Act in 1930. The indebtedness of the Indian raiyat and the grip of the money-lender over him were well-known. The raiyat in the district had to pay a commission to secure a loan in the first place and then sell his produce at a price lower than the one he would have got in the open market. As an example may be cited the *laoni* system in which there was a wide gap between the *laoni* price and the price the cultivator could have secured if he had sold his produce after the harvest. Next, the agriculturists had to face the traders when he brought his produce to markets. Before the passing of the Agricultural Markets Act, chaos ruled in respect of the commissions and deductions made from the price paid to the raiyat. The only sanction was custom and the rate of commission and the decisions on some items like charity deductions used to be entirely at the caprice of the *adatyas* and traders.

Defects in Weights and Measures

Another serious defect in the marketing of agricultural produce in the State was the vague and often extremely inequitable state of the weights and measures. It was often noticed that, in one and the same shop, both weights and measures were used for the same unit of purchase. A shopkeeper would quote his price in a weight unit and would sell or purchase by measure, as it suited his convenience. This exchangeability of weights and measures for the same unit of purchase in the same market was a source of infinite confusion and loss to the comparatively ignorant cultivator. Another source of confusion was that the same name was used for measures of different capacity, so that what would have stood for four units in one place would be used for a measure with a capacity of five identical units in another. From the villages to the assembling centres in the towns, there were wide variations in capacity for the measure of the same name and shape. Even with a measure that conformed strictly to the standard, it was possible to manipulate the quantity by what was called thumping, so that within limits, a crafty measurer could dupe the cultivator by a considerable percentage. The position in respect of weights was equally bad. Not only were the standards diverse but the actual weights used were also often grossly defective.

In view of the increasing importance of marketing problems, the Government of Hyderabad which passed the Agricultural Markets Act in 1930, opened a separate Marketing Department in 1935. The main feature of the Hyderabad Agricultural Markets

Agricultural Markets Act

Act was the establishment of what are known as regulated markets. This Act aimed at tackling the evils narrated above and giving to the cultivator the facilities for securing the maximum price for his products. The Act covered almost all the agricultural commodities grown in the area. Before it came into force, the central functionary in the market was the broker called the *adatya*. The *adatya* whose chief duty was to facilitate business between buyer and seller, often did many other things such as lending money to the raiyats either in the shape of crop loans or against the security of stored goods, and sometimes himself engaging in trade. He was the purveyor of market information and his influence with the cultivator-sellers and the merchant-buyers gave him a solid position in the market. He was also responsible for the disposal of charity funds and similar items. The Act regularised the business of the *adatya* and other functionaries. It provided for licensing every *adatya* and fixed the commission he could receive for any service he performed. It also fixed the maximum deductions permissible on account of defects in certain commodities. Traders were obliged to be registered and weighmen were licensed. Appropriate fees were fixed for the registration of traders and the licensing of *adatyas*. Only the licensed were allowed to conduct commercial transactions within the limits of the regulated markets. The limits of the regulated markets were fixed with reference to the location of trading houses, the convenience of *adatyas* and sellers, and the necessity of efficient supervision.

The first regulated market in the district was started at Gulbarga in 1940. Two more regulated markets were opened, one at Yadgir and another at Seram, in 1947. In 1951, six more markets were added, bringing the total number of regulated markets in the district to nine. The table below gives information regarding their locations, dates of starting and their sub-markets.

Sl. No.	*Location of the regulated market*		*Date of starting*	*Sub-markets, if any*
1	Gulbarga	..	19-3-1940	..
2.	Seram	..	9-9-1947	..
3.	Yadgir	..	11-9-1947	..
4.	Shahapur	..	10-8-1951	Gogi
5.	Shorapur	..	11-8-1951	Rangampet
6	Shahabad	..	12-8-1951	..
7	Nalwar	..	20-8-1951	..
8.	Chittapur	..	22-8-1951	..
9.	Saidapur	..	23-8-1951	..

The Regulated Market Committee, Gulbarga, was the first to be established in the district. The jurisdiction of the market extends over a radius of five miles from the district office. The important arrivals in the market and their value for the years 1962-63 and 1963-64 were as follows :— **Regulated Market Committee, Gulbarga**

Sl. No.	Name of the Commodity	1962—63 Arrivals (in quintals)	1962—63 Value (in rupees)	1963—64 Arrivals (in quintals)	1963—64 Value (in rupees)
1	2	3	4	5	6
1.	Paddy ..	3,208	1,15,522	4,505	1,63,279
2.	Rice (Fine) ..	5,784	4,02,987	7,917	5,67,521
3.	Rice (Coarse) ..	5,947	3,28,804	7,415	4,28,282
4.	Wheat (White) ..	9,762	3,42,126	4,752	2,72,191
5.	Jowar (White) ..	88,748	39,94,215	96,387	41,67,970
6.	Jowar (Mungari) .	10,267	2,31,488	1,843	67,658
7.	Bajra ..	19,415	5,67,604	32,323	12,53,016
8.	Kangni ..	..	..	..	..
9.	Ragi ..	..	..	..	..
10.	Gram ..	6,853	2,95,855	13,593	6,92,087
11.	Jue ..	5,029	1,93,094	..	..
12.	Tur ..	55,771	11,66,134	52,537	21,59,697
13.	Udid ..	30,248	21,22,537	34,130	20,25,038
14.	Moong ..	9,194	4,09 862	5,509	2,42,640
15.	Groundnut pods ..	2,67,495	1,61,30,509	2,59,988	1,64,21,336
16.	Linseed ..	3,305	1,87,282	3,774	2,69,518
17.	Sesamum (Til) ..	25,363	25,75,727	18,249	17,85,594
18.	Karad (Safflower) ..	15,072	7,64,802	33,841	12,08,272
19.	Nigerseed ..	720	43,055	..	..
20.	Ambada seed ..	1,821	66,385	1,886	67,408
21.	Castor seed ..	211	12,045	158	8,847
22.	Ambada Fibre ..	2,590	2,31,893	..	..
23.	Chillies ..	1,493	2,48,976	..	..
24.	Onions ..	3,814	55,358	2,77'	49,118
25.	Tamarind ..	870	78,383	2,546	1,34,428
26.	Sugar (Red) ..	10,978	7,92,585	13,841	13,64,411

The income and expenditure of the market committee during 1962-63 and 1963-64 were as given below :—

Year	*Income*	*Expenditure*
	Rs.	Rs.
1962-63	1,60,118–74	2,14,260–75
1963-64	1,76,380–92	1,06,888–37

This market committee being the oldest in the district and having been situated in the district headquarters town, is the most important of all the markets in the district. Gulbarga occupies a very important place in the trade of the district and the regulated market at this place is mainly controlling the marketing of wheat, jowar, bajra, tur, green gram, Bengal gram, linseed, groundnut, paddy, rice, castor, til, safflower, cotton-seed, chillies and tamarind. This being a big market, there were 150 commission agents.

Regulated Market Committee, Yadgir

The Regulated Market Committee, Yadgir, which was established in 1947, is rendering useful service to the traders of this place. The jurisdiction of the market committee extends over a radius of ten miles from the taluk office. There is no gunj attached to the market. There were, in 1963-64, 26 licensed buyers, 20 *adatyas*, 18 kirana merchants and 35 petty dealers who were carrying on transactions in this market. The most prominent of the commodities handled in this market are jowar, wheat and rice. Arrivals of agricultural commodities in the market for the years 1962-63 and 1963-64 were as under :—

Sl No	Name of the Commodity	1962-63 Arrivals (in quintals)	1962-63 Value (in rupees)	1963-64 Arrivals (in quintals)	1963-64 Value (in rupees)
1.	Paddy	11,382	4,05,902	6,891	2,48,457
2.	Rice (Fine)	..	..	..	..
3	Rice (Coarse)	346	20,089	446	26,538
4	Wheat	152	8,958	117	6,447
5.	Jowar (White)	7,661	3,93,545	3,008	1,24,448
6.	Jowar (Mungari)	281	10,050	195	6,652
7	Bajra	202	7,489	109	4,363
8.	Kulthi		.	413	14,634
9.	Gram	51	2,236	79	3,614
10.	Tur	1,171	35.947	1,260	74,151
11.	Udid	29	1,853	203	10,747
12.	Moong	4,097	1,67,660	7,504	2,69,814
13.	Groundnut pods	44,287	25,53,561	50,957	35,33,751
14.	Linseed	68	4,388	84	5,426
15	Safflower (Karad)	1,021	46,339	2,639	1,19,025
16.	Sesamum	1,615	1,55,115	1,963	1,98,047
17.	Castor seed	234	13,196	140	7,655
18.	Onion	20	295	19	327
19	Cotton (Laxmi)	16,022	17,86,509	14,829	15,41,245
20.	Cotton (Farm)	4,947	4,19,679	3,246	2,74,786
21.	Lint (Laxmi)	1,363	3,57,047	3,586	5,78,571
22.	Lint (Farm)	772	1 88,238	..	..
23.	Cotton seeds	.	..	..	..
24.	Tamarind	139	5,900	138	4,512

The income and expenditure of this market committee for the years 1962-63 and 1963-64 were as follows :—

Year	*Income*	*Expenditure*
	Rs.	Rs.
1962-63	12,038–60	16,970–82
1963-64	31,606–19	43,040–52

Regulated Market Committee, Seram

The Hyderabad Agricultural Markets Act was brought into force in this trade centre in 1947 and a regulated market was established in that year. The jurisdiction of the market extends over an area of five miles from the taluk office. The number of commission agents and traders licensed under the Act during 1962 was 43. The important arrivals for the years 1962-63 and 1963-64 were as follows :—

Sl. No.	*Name of the Commodity*	1962–63 *Arrivals (in quintals)*	1962–63 *Value (in rupees)*	1963–64 *Arrivals (in quintals)*	1963–64 *Value (in rupees)*
1.	Rice (Fine)	2,658	1,70,491	..	..
2.	Rice (Coarse)	2,517	1,42,210	7,825	4,65,504
3.	Wheat	1,381	78,717	2,809	1,54,849
4.	Jowar (White)	21,594	9,28,542	12,640	5,68,635
5.	Jowar (Mungari)	..	..	1,324	52,676
6.	Bajra	339	13,255	778	29,336
7.	Gram	2,141	95,060	5,464	2,83,597
8.	Tur	24,082	10,81,282	21,726	11,58,294
9.	Moong	1,602	67,925	1,361	54,973
10.	Udid	4,526	2,46,667	9,267	5,88,299
11.	Groundnut pods	11,934	7,22,003	12,867	8,76,780
12.	Linseed	6,390	3,92,985	6,439	4,47,158
13.	Safflower (Karad)	5,170	2,28,405	11,363	4,23,179
14.	Castor seed	171	9,491	133	8,008
15.	Lobha	924	25,415	45	1,960
16.	Sesamum (Til)	664	66,134	314	29,451
17.	Kulthi	..	..	1,142	38,162
18.	Cotton seed	..	..	709	21,497

The income and expenditure of the market committee during 1962-63 and 1963-64 were as follows :—

Year	*Income*	*Expenditure*
	Rs.	Rs.
1962-63	14,959–94	15,959–59
1963-64	37,409–84	31,140–07

Regulated Market Committee, Chittapur

A market committee was established on 22nd August 1951 at Chittapur. The market committee includes all villages within a radius of five miles from the Chittapur Railway Station. The number of licensed commission agents in this market was 19 on

31st March 1962. The important arrivals into the market during 1962-63 and 1963-64 and their value are detailed below :—

Sl. No.	Name of the commodity	1962–63		1963–64	
		Arrivals (in quintals)	Value (in rupees)	Arrivals (in quintals)	Value (in rupees)
1	2	3	4	5	6
1.	Rice (Fine) ..	..	..	..	..
2.	Rice (Coarse) ..	319	18,314	445	31,705
3.	Jowar (White) ..	8,475	3,63,783	13,343	6,40,464
4.	Jowar (Mungari) .	4,657	1,85,707	6,150	2,89,050
5.	Bajra	643	25,768	814	..
6.	Gram	746	27,931	1,045	62,700
7.	Tur .	8,249	3,55,341	6,192	3,97,267
8.	Moong ..	636	29,134	747	56,025
9.	Udid ..	1,147	69,727	1,540	1,00,100
10.	Groundnut pods ..	7,393	4,23,489	8,202	5,65,938
11.	Linseed .	3,281	1,86,631	3,363	2,25,321
12.	Safflower (Karad) .	5,186	2,23,328	..	..
13.	Sesamum (Til)	441	45,398	..	..
14	Ambada seed .	245	6,766	266	9,576
15.	Ajwan	366	21,226	..	..
16.	Cotton seed ..	.	..	671	20,975

The income and expenditure of the market committee during 1962-63 and 1963-64 were as follows :—

Year	Income	Expenditure
	Rs.	Rs.
1962-63	9,219–31	8,979–31
1963-64	11,265-24	9,415-20

Regulated Market Committee, Shahapur

The market committee, Shahapur, was started on 10th August 1951. The area of operation extends over a radius of eight miles from the taluk office. The number of licensed commission agents during 1962 was 21 excluding four oil mills which were also licensed to participate in the trade of the market committee. A sub-market under this main market was established at Gogi subsequently. The following are the statistics of arrivals of important commodities and their value in the Shahapur market committee

(these include arrivals in Gogi sub-market also) during the years 1962-63 and 1963-64.

Sl. No.	Name of the commodity	1962–63 Arrivals (in quintals)	1962–63 Value (in rupees)	1963–64 Arrivals (in quintals)	1963–64 Value (in rupees)
1.	Paddy (medium) ..	301	9,405	650	23,049
2.	Rice (Coarse) ..	12	719	38	2,295
3.	Wheat (White) ..	1,383	77,614	2,148	93,8.8
4.	Jowar (White) ..	3,768	1,32,987	4,553	1,51,950
5.	Jowar (Mungari) ..	8,158	3,70,942	10,101	4,12,808
6.	Bajra ..	2,090	68,856	2,612	94,890
7.	Gram ..	119	5,083	122	5,683
8.	Tur ..	1,041	31,968	907	51,962
9.	Moong ..	1,347	55,501	1,545	62,432
10.	Groundnut pods ..	19,209	11,26,394	27,490	17,31,085
11.	Safflower (Karad) ..	1,631	94,133	2,881	1,32,369
12.	Kapas (Mungari) ..	..	..	3,906	3,66,039
13.	Lobhi ..	108	3,148	214	9,760
14.	Cotton seed ..	268	10,216	..	..
15.	Linseed ..	1,108	72,085	1,192	80,204
16.	Sesamum ..	1,825	1,79,791	..	..
17.	Cotton (Laxmi) ..	..	..	15,348	17,15,084
18.	Lint (Laxmi) ..	9,727	9,93,461	..	.
19.	Lint (Mungari) ..	288	77,637	125	20,653

The income and expenditure of the market committee for the years 1962-63 and 1963-64 were as follows :—

Year	*Income*	*Expenditure*
	Rs.	Rs.
1962-63	14,423–46	18,369–17
1963-64	19,544–15	21,345–62

Regulated Market Committee, Shorapur

The Regulated Market Committee, Shorapur, came into being under the Hyderabad Agricultural Markets Act, 1930, on 11th August, 1951, to improve the marketing conditions of the area. A sub-market under this market was established subsequently at Rangampet. The area of operation of the Shorapur market committee extends over a radius of five miles from the taluk office. The number of licensed commission agents in the market committee during 1962 was 40. The prominent arrivals of agricultural commodities in the market yard in terms of quantity and

value during 1962-63 and 1963-64 are given below. (These include figures relating to Rangampet sub-market also).

Sl. No.	Name of the commodity	1962-63 Arrivals (in quintals)	1962-63 Value (in rupees)	1963-64 Arrivals (in quintals)	1963-64 Value (in rupees)
1.	Paddy (medium) .	105	3,660	572	20,592
2	Rice (coarse) ..	439	23,951	356	19,936
3.	Wheat (white) ..	979	59,719	1,324	75,547
4.	Wheat (red) ..	495	24,750	..	..
5.	Jowar (white) .	3,618	1,74,810	3,086	1,26,526
6.	Jowar (mungari) ..	7,144	2,42,896	7,565	2,57,210
7	Bajra ..	5,015	1,90,570	7,502	2,62,570
8.	Tur ..	3,593	1,49,706	1,226	62,574
9.	Moong ..	648	25,272	1,675	82,075
10	Groundnut pods	51,389	31,99,106	64,624	40,93,528
11.	Safflower (Karad)	412	20,188	1,670	83,500
12.	Til (Sesamum) ..	4,001	4,06,137	6,107	5,68,545
13.	Kapas Jowar ..	4,396	3,42,888	4,053	3,36,399
14.	Kapas (mungari) ..	..	..	99	6,930
15.	Lint (Laxmi)	888	2,44,200	2,744	6,58,560
16.	Cotton Seed .	123	4,428	112	3,828
17	Castor Seed .	5,296	5,45,488	149	8,344
18.	Cotton (Laxmi) ..	..	..	10,975	10,64,575

The income and expenditure of the market committee during 1962-63 and 1963-64 are given below :—

Year	Income	Expenditure
	Rs.	Rs.
1962-63	19,436–00	16,783–00
1963-64	27,330–00	25,693–00

Regulated Market Committee, Shahabad

The Shahabad Market Committee was established on 12th August 1951. The jurisdiction of the market extends over a radius of five miles from the Shahabad Railway Station. The number of commission agents as on 31st March 1962 was twenty.

Arrivals of prominent commodities and their value for the years 1962-63 and 1963-64 are given below :—

Sl. No.	Name of the commodity	1962–63 Arrivals (in quintals)	1962–63 Value (in rupees)	1963–64 Arrivals (in quintals)	1963–64 Value (in rupees)
1.	Rice (coarse) ..	826	48,480	535	20,234
2.	Wheat ..	469	31,734	829	49,262
3.	Jowar (white) ..	20,296	8,85,776	30,301	13,08,318
4.	Jowar (mungari)..	1,559	56,687	1,488	57,034
5.	Bajra ..	1,142	41,584	1,502	46,548
6.	Gram ..	510	20,969	482	25,626
7.	Tur ..	5,507	2,71,235	9,766	2,86,741
8.	Moong ..	442	19,177	489	19,428
9.	Groundnut pods	21,456	11,39,193	17,563	6,72,098
10.	Linseed ..	909	53,796	2,328	1,57,770
11.	Safflower (karad)	959	53,366	8,919	5,49,438
12.	Udid ..	113	6,691	146	8,079
13.	Ambada Seed ..	154	4,215	129	5,256

The income and expenditure of the market committee during 1962-63 and 1963-64 were as follows :—

Year	*Income*	*Expenditure*
	Rs.	Rs.
1962-63	13,790–29	12,367–09
1963-64	16,611–61	10,579–30

Regulated Market Committee, Saidapur

The Saidapur regulated market was established at Saidapur on 23rd August 1951. The area of operation of the market committee extends over a radius of five miles from the Narayanpet Railway Station. The number of licensed agents in the market during 1962 was 18. The arrivals of agricultural commodities and their value for the years 1962-63 and 1963-64 are given below :—

Sl. No.	Name of the commodity	1962–63 Arrivals (in quintals)	1962–63 Value (in rupees)	1963–64 Arrivals (in quintals)	1963–64 Value (in rupees)
1.	Paddy ..	2,268	73,026	5,076	1,83,463
2.	Wheat ..	7	401	14	894
3.	Jowar (white) ..	4,336	1,84,989	3,352	1,40,215
4.	Bajra ..	24	915	..	..
5.	Tur ..	268	9,174	401	21,374
6.	Moong ..	2,151	86,725	4,642	1,66,931
7.	Groundnut pods	9,681	5,77,555	11,021	6,62,018
8.	Safflower (Karad)	122	4,954	324	14,186
9.	Kapas (Laxmi) ..	..	..	3,237	3,31,453
10.	Sesamum ..	265	24,349	326	57,280

The income and expenditure of the market committee during 1962-63 and 1963-64 were as follows :—

Year	*Income*	*Expenditure*
	Rs.	Rs.
1962-63	5,388–37	4,563–18
1963-64	6,666–93	5,019–49

Regulated Market Committee, Nalwar

The market committee, Nalwar, was established on 20th August 1951. This is the smallest of the regulated markets in the district. The area of operation extends over a radius of five miles from the Nalwar Railway Station. Arrivals of important commodities in the market and their value for 1962-63 and 1963-64 are indicated below :—

Sl No.	Name of the commodity	1962-63		1963-64	
		Arrivals (in quintals)	Value (in rupees)	Arrivals (in quintals)	Value (in rupees)
1	Paddy	510	46,800	179	6,554
2	Jowar (mungari)	8,659	3,30,721	..	..
3	Jowar (white)	..	..	3,191	1,25,894
4	Bajra	36	1,298	38	1,385
5	Tur	552	21,071	459	27,218
6	Gram	289	11,491	..	..
7	Groundnut pods	660	25,826	5,896	3,66,265
8	Linseed	..	..	422	28,505
9	Safflower (Karad)	562	34,893	1,045	46,793
10	Sesamum (Til)	4,819	2,76,191	382	37,860

The income and expenditure of the market committee during 1962-63 and 1963-64 were as follows :—

Year	*Income*	*Expenditure*
	Rs.	Rs.
1962-63	2,225–25	2,361–40
1963-64	4,090–21	1,515–04

Warehouses

As trade developed in the district, the necessity for warehouses which would ensure proper storage against pests and consequent loss was keenly felt. The Central Government promulgated a law called the Agricultural Produce (Development of Warehouses) Corporation Act, 1956, which resulted in the starting of a Warehousing Corporation in every State. In Mysore State also, a State Warehousing Corporation was established to afford proper storage facilities for foodgrains in the principal markets. Private traders, co-operative institutions and agriculturists are allowed access to these warehouses. A Central

Warehouse was started at Gulbarga on 2nd December 1960 which is controlled by the Central Warehousing Corporation, New Delhi.

The following statement indicates the transactions of the Central Warehouse at Gulbarga from August 1962 to February 1965.

CENTRAL WAREHOUSE, GULBARGA

Month	*Opening balance (in bags)*	*Deposits (in bags)*	*Withdrawals (in bags)*	*Closing balance (in bags)*
1	2	3	4	5
August 1962 ..	4,299	92	2,030	2,361
September 1962 ..	2,361	..	1,556	805
October 1962 ..	805	874	540	1,139
November 1962 ..	1,139	965	710	1,494
December 1962 ..	1,494	320	233	1,581
January 1963 ..	1,581	292	74	1,799
February 1963 ..	1,799	1,088	208	2,679
March 1963 ..	2,679	2,401	188	4,892
April 1963 ..	4,892	4,173	634	8,431
May 1963 ..	8,431	3,144	1,628	9,947
June 1963 ..	9,947	1,195	2,095	9,047
July 1963 ..	9,047	1,008	1,481	8,574
August 1963 ..	8,574	1,319	1,723	8,170
September 1963 ..	8,170	687	2,084	6,773
October 1963 ..	6,773	985	3,309	4,449
November 1963 ..	4,449	594	1,599	3,444
December 1963 ..	3,444	2,176	1,056	4,564
January 1964 ..	4,564	3,449	794	7,219
February 1964 ..	7,219	4,227	1,564	9,882
March 1964 ..	9,882	3,452	2,698	10,636
April 1964 ..	10,636	668	2,306	8,998
May 1964 ..	8,998	698	2,332	7,364
June 1964 ..	7,364	955	3,032	5,287
July 1964 ..	5,287	374	1,020	4,641
August 1964 ..	4,641	19	1,604	3,056
September 1964 ..	3,056	23	1,775	1,304
October 1964 ..	1,304	632	253	1,683
November 1964 ..	1,683	14,985	4,966	11,702
December 1964 ..	11,702	1,681	10,602	2,781
January 1965 ..	2,781	12,201	1,768	13,214
February 1965 ..	13,214	2,901	636	15,479

The idea behind the establishment of warehouses is to draw all the produce during harvest and stock it in proper, pest-free storage houses. Users of the godown are allowed to change the title by a system of recognised transfer of documents, without the difficulty of transportation from seller to the buyer. Even sales are effected on the strength of warehouse receipts. The

arrivals in the godown are properly weighed or measured and all the particulars entered on the receipt. This helps traders to sell their goods without recourse to recurring weighments and exhibition of contents. There is no need to examine the samples or to scrutinise the standard. Everything is done by the technical staff of the warehousing corporation. It is also expected that by the increasing use of these godowns, hoarding and profiteering and the creation of artificial scarcity will be diminished. A stable and fair price, unhampered by unsocial tendencies, is the logical concomitant of the store house idea. The warehouses run by the Central Corporation like the one situated at Gulbarga have a much larger capacity than those run by the State Warehousing Corporations. They are, therefore, set up at places of inter-State trade or places which are important from the point of view of exports. The pattern of work in both types of warehouses, whether Central or State, is however the same. A beginning was made in Yadgir in April, 1960 in setting up a state warehouse on a modest scale. Later, when it became popular, warehouses were opened at the market centres at Seram and Shorapur in 1963. The particulars in respect of the working of the warehouses at Yadgir, Seram and Shorapur are given below :—

STATE WAREHOUSE, YADGIR

Period	*Opening Balance (in bags)*	*Deposits (in bags)*	*With-drawals (in bags)*	*Closing Balance (in bags)*
1	2	3	4	5
April 1960 to December 1960.	..	1,720	560	1,160
January 1961 to December 1961.	1,160	23,797	20,972	3,985
January 1962 to December 1962.	3,985	20,292	14,820	9,457
January 1963 to December 1963.	9,457	11,694	16,913	4,238
January 1964 to December 1964.	4,238	8,119	11,159	1,198
January 1965 to December 1965.	1,198	8,334	7,252	2,280
Total ..	20,038	73,956	71,676	22,318

STATE WAREHOUSE, SERAM

Month		*Opening balance (in bags)*	*Deposits (in bags)*	*Withdrawals (in bags)*	*Closing balance (in bags)*
October 1963	..	..	147	..	147
November 1963	..	147	175	61	261
December 1963	..	261	210	112	359
January 1964	..	359	1,300	106	1,553
February 1964	..	1,553	3,263	143	4,673
March 1964	..	4,673	786	1,147	4,313
April 1964	..	4,313	581	927	3,967
May 1964	..	3,967	20	1,505	2,482
June 1964	..	2,482	16	1,403	1,095
July 1964	..	1,095	14	802	307
August 1964	..	307	12	165	154
September 1964	..	154	2	72	84
October 1964	..	84	38	49	73
November 1964	..	73	213	..	286
December 1964	.	286	234	39	481
January 1965	..	481	324	57	748
February 1965	..	748	921	24	1,645

STATE WAREHOUSE, SHORAPUR

Month		*Opening balance (in bags)*	*Deposits (in bags)*	*Withdrawals (in bags)*	*Closing balance (in bags)*
December 1963	..	..	428	200	228
January 1964	..	228	309	57	480
February 1964	..	480	490	253	717
March 1964	..	717	393	..	1,110
April 1964	..	1,110	4	86	1,028
May 1964	..	1,028	19	319	728
June 1964	..	728	111	160	679
July 1964	..	679	6	392	293
August 1964	..	293	12	227	78
September 1964	..	78	6	69	15
October 1964	..	15	4	1	18
November 1964	..	18	1	11	8
December 1964	..	8	3,318	33	3,293
January 1965	..	3,293	1,264	..	4,557
February 1965	..	4,557	428	..	4,985

Trade Centres

The imported goods are distributed inside the district through various trade centres. The chief distributing centre in the district is Gulbarga itself. All the places where the regulated markets have been established are centres of trade in the district. Places like Seram, Chittapur, Shahabad, Yadgir and Gulbarga which are connected by railway are in a better position to handle the trade. As these are fairly big towns, several *mandies* (godowns) have started functioning. The weekly markets are the other trade centres in Gulbarga. These weekly markets which are called shandies are held at Aland (Thursday), Gurmatkal (Monday), Seram (Wednesday), Shahapur (Friday), Gogi (Wednesday), Shorapur (Friday), Gulbarga (Saturday) and Jevargi (Tuesday). At all these places, there is abundant retail trade also. Agricultural produce passes directly to shandies and wholesale bazaars from where the retailers buy their goods and sell them to their customers.

Fairs

The fairs of Gulbarga district are chiefly of a religious character. They attract people of the immediate neighbourhood. In some of the fairs, cattle markets are also held where cattle dealers bring their animals for sale or exchange. These fairs deal, in addition, in almost all commodities required by the village raiyat. In addition to these religious fairs, there are a number of *uruses* in the district. Particulars of the prominent fairs and *uruses* in the district of Gulbarga are given at the end of the Chapter.

Fair Price Shops

The post-war period of rise in prices, general inflation and hoarding and profiteering by unsocial elements made the Government set up fair price shops in order to arrest the rise in the prices of food articles. There were, in 1965, 585 fair price shops in the district.

Weights and Measures

The weights and measures used in the Gulbarga district were those prescribed by the Hyderabad Weights and Measures Act, 1946, which came into force in the area on 1st March 1950. Even after the States' Reorganisation in 1956, when the district became part of the New Mysore State, the same statute was being continued together with the rules, till the compulsory introduction of the metric system of weights and measures. The bullion transactions in the district were being done using the *tola*, *val* and *rathi* as units of weight. These bullion weights were the same as the Bombay bullion *tola* of 180 grains (kaldar), *val* and *mathi*. The traders in the area followed two kinds of weights, the seer and tola weights and the pound *avoirdupois* weights. Any trader found using false weights was punished under the law.

A seer was equal to 80 tolas and a maund was equal to 40 seers. A *palla* was equal to three maunds and twenty maunds was equal to one *khandi*. Multiples and sub-multiples of *tola*, seer, *palla* and *khandi* were also used in the determination of 1/2, 1/4,

1/8, 1/16 and 1/32 like a *masha* or 1/12 of a tola or a *chatak* or 1/16 of a seer.

The traders in goods like coffee, tea, tobacco and condiments followed the pound *avoirdupois* weights in preference to the traditional *tola* weight. Modern weighing machines were used to determine the correct weight. In wholesale markets with a fairly high turnover, all food-grains were determined in tons for purposes of export. The internal arrivals were determined by the maund. Dealers in cotton, cloth, coal, coke and metals followed the pound *avoirdupois* weights.

The seer was the unit of measure. A maund was equal to 40 seers and a *palla* was equal to 120 seers in the district. The multiples of half a seer and one-fourth seer were also used. In the day-to-day transactions of the retail bazaar, the *chatak*, the *adholi*, and the *pyali* were also used. The *chatak* was equal to 1/16 of a seer and an *adholi* was equal to two seers and a *pyali* was equal to four seers. People who went to the bazaar for their daily provisions were served in these measures.

The liquids were measured by the imperial gallon where a pint was determined as 1/8 of a gallon. In the bars and liquor shops, the peg and the dram were the accepted standards.

The standard of length used in the district was the same as elsewhere, namely foot, yard, furlong and mile. The area was measured in *guntas* and acres ; one *gunta* was equal to 120 square yards and one acre was equal to 4,840 square yards.

The metric system of weights and measures was introduced in all the regulated market areas of the district from 1st October 1958. Subsequently, it was made compulsory. From 1st April 1962, the metric system has been made compulsory in all spheres of transactions of the State. The old weights and measures which were bewildering in their variety and complexity have now been completely replaced by the new metric system.

TABLE 1

Prominent Fairs in Gulbarga District.

Sl No.	Village or place where held	Name of Fair	Dates when held and duration in days	Approximate month when held	Average number of attendance	Distance from nearest Rly. Stn.
1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1	Farhatabad	Sharana Basappa	10 Chaitra (3)	April	7,000	10 miles from Gulbarga.
2.	Brahmapur (Gulbarga)	Sharana Basaveshwar Jatra	20 Chaitra (15)	March	1,00,000	..
3	Gulbarga	Sharana Basappa	1 Phalguna (6)	March	5,000	1½ miles from Gulbarga
4.	Kadganchi	Shanteshwar	18 Chaitra (1)	April	800	12 do
5.	Maniyal	Amok Siddappa	14 Vaishaka (1)	May	500	17 do
6.	Salgad	Basappa	8 Chaitra Shuddha(1)	April	1200	18 do
7	Sirgapur	Vira Bhadrappa	8 Chaitra (1)	April	1 200	10 do
8.	Waghdari	Arjun Dev	Kartika (1)	November	1 200	10 do
9.	Anuli	Hanuman	14 Magha (1)	February	400	20 miles from Tandur
10.	Chincholi	Sri Balaji	7 Magha (4)	February	6,000	19 miles from Tandur
11.	Kaduli	Rameshwara Dev	9 Chaitra (2)	April	2,000	15 miles from Tandur.
12.	Sulepet	Vira Bhadrappa	1 Chaitra (8)	April	3,000	14 miles from Nawandgi
13.	Tatipalli	Rameshwar	1 Shravana (12)	August	1.200	25 miles from Tandur
14.	Yelmamdi	Balaji Dev	1 Magha (3)	February	1 200	30 miles from Tandur
15.	Adki	Venkateshwar	1 Vaishaka (4)	May	1,000	4 miles from Kurkunta
16.	Degaon	Shivalingam	8 Chaitra (2)	April	1 200	3 miles from Malkhed
17.	Handergi	Lokeshwar Dev	14 Magha (3)	February	400	14 miles from Seram
18.	Mudhol	Gopalaswami	8 Shravana (2)	August	1200	6 miles from Kurkunta

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
19.	Motakpalli ..	Bhimsen Dev ..	4 Margashira (5)	December	8,000	14 miles from Seram
20.	Seram ..	Kotal Baswanna ..	11 Vaishakha (3) ..	May ..	3,000	..
21.	Idlore ..	Shankarlingaswamy	5 Phalguna (1) ..	April ..	2,000	..
22.	Kadlore ..	Jatra ..	30 Phalguna (4) ..	April ..	10,000	Near Saidapur
23.	Kala Yelganda ..	Eranna Dev ..	5 Margashira (1)	December	1,000	Near Saidapur
24.	Yadgir ..	Sharana Basappa ..	18 Chaitra (2) ..	April ..	1,000	One mile from Yadgir.
25.	Diggi ..	Sangamnath Dev ..	30 Shravana (3) ..	August ..	5,000	25 do
26.	Mandagi ..	Basaveshwar ..	20 Shravana (1) ..	August ..	1,000	26 do
27.	Madbole ..	Gopalaswami ..	20 Pushya (1) ..	January ..	3,000	24 do
28.	Parsapur ..	Sharnappa Dev ..	5 Chaitra (3) ..	April ..	2,000	25 do
29.	Shahapur ..	Sivanappa ..	30 Shravana (1) ..	August ..	3,000	22 do
30.	Sarwal ..	Sudh Bishveswar ..	15 Pushya (2) ..	January ..	3,000	24 do
31.	Badevanhal ..	Gopalaswami ..	9 Chaitra (1) ..	April ..	400	34 miles from Almatti
32.	Baichbal ..	Hanuman Dev ..	5 Chaitra (1) ..	April ..	400	38 miles from Yadgir
33.	Hebbal Khurd ..	Parmanand ..	Shravana (3) ..	August ..	2,000	39 miles from Yadgir
34.	Jaly Benchi ..	Mallikarjun Dev ..	20 Magha (1) ..	February ..	1,500	34 miles from Yadgir
35.	Jangon Gaddi ..	Gaddamma Devi ..	15 Pushya (3) ..	January ..	2,000	30 miles from Almatti
36.	Kodekal ..	Basappa ..	15 Kartika (5) ..	November	4,000	38 Miles from Almatti.
			15 Chaitra (5) ..	April ..	4,000	do
37.	Narayanpur .	Gudma Devi ..	3 Vaishakha (1)	May ..	2,000	30 do
38.	Shorapur ..	Gopalaswami ..	23 Shravana (2) ..	August ..	5,000	31 miles from Yadgir
39.	Tintini ..	Monappa ..	11 Magha (5) ..	February ..	5,000	38 miles from Almatti
40.	Aland ..	Hanuman ..	15 Chaitra (3) ..	April ..	3,000	27 miles from Gulbarga
41.	Ghangapur (Deval).	Dattatraya Maharaj Jatra.	16, Magha (5)	February	60 to 70 thousand	About 10 miles

TABLE 2

PROMINENT URUSES IN GULBARGA DISTRICT

Sl. No.	*Village or place where held*	*Name of Urus*	*Dates when held and duration in days*	*Average Number of attendance*	*Distance from nearest Railway Stn.*
1	2	3	4	5	6
1.	Gulbarga ..	Khwaja Bande Nawaz	15 Zikhaida (3)..	1,00,000	3 miles from Gulbarga.
2.	Gulbarga ..	Khubullah Hussaini..	22 Rabi-us-Sani	5,000	3 miles from Gulbarga.
3.	Pallapur ..	Ruknuddin Saheb ..	14 Shaban (4) ..	5,000	4 miles from Gulbarga
4.	Chincholi ..	Khudawande Numa.. Hussaini.	15 Shavval (2) ..	1,500	19 miles from Tandur
5.	Jangalta ..	Shah Mastan Khadri	Zikhaida ..	2,000	18 miles from Tandur
6.	Seram ..	Asar Sharif ..	12 Rabi-ul-Avval (1)	300	..
7.	Alipur ..	Urus ..	14 Rajab (2) ..	2,000	..
8.	Gurmatkal ..	Matwalay Hussaini ..	30 Zikhaida (1)..	1,500	..
9.	Yadgir ..	Yakoob Bhukari ..	15 Rabi-ul-Avval (2).	2,000	One mile from Yadgir.

1	2	3	4	5	6
10.	Ambi Ruza ..	Syed Shah Hussain	15 Jamadi-us-Sani (3).	1,000	8 miles from Nalwar
11.	Bandi Bimli ..	Syed Jamaluddin Khadri	22 Jamadi-us-Sani (3).	5,000	6 miles from Saidapur
12.	Gogi ..	S. Jalaluddin Chanda Hussaini.	10 Shaban (3) ..	3,000	25 miles from Yadgir
13.	Gogipet ..	Shah Mahmood Bhori	10 Shavval (2) ..	2,000	25 miles from Yadgir
14.	Sagar Shariff ..	Shaik Sufi Sermast ..	4 Rabi-us-Sani	10,000	25 miles from Yadgir
15.	Shorapur ..	Fakrullah Shah ..	1 Shavval ..	500	31 miles from Yadgir
16.	Kembhavi ..	Sultan Bibi Saheb ..	15 Rabi-ul-Avval (3).	3,000	44 miles from Yadgir.
17.	Chittapur ..	Chita Shah Vali ..	21 Zilhaj (15) ..	10,000	12 miles from Chittapur.
18.	Aland ..	Moray Mashaik ..	9 Rabi-us-Sani (4).	3,000	27 miles from Gulbarga.

CHAPTER VII

COMMUNICATIONS

Old-time Routes

It is not possible to give any precise account of the condition of road communications during the rule of the many dynasties which made Gulbarga famous in Indian history. Roads must have existed even then, but neither the nature of these roads nor their alignments have been described anywhere. Inscriptions which are numerous speak of the existence of roads and their maintenance for military needs. Many inscriptions relating to the Rashtrakuta dynasty describe the roads as big and small and kept in good condition. They were generally maintained by the local authorities, the villagers being expected to supply the labour force to keep the roads in good condition. The breadth of the main roads seems to have been about 24 feet. There were also tracks in those days, slightly better than foot-paths, which were apparently impassable for wheeled traffic. The roads in ancient days were not always safe and brigandage increased in unsettled times. Arab travellers who visited India for purposes of trade have spoken very highly of the Rashtrakuta administration, particularly the reign of Belhara or Ballalaraja or Vallabha raja. During his regime, the roads were kept in good order. During the reign of the Bahmani Sultans, the inland trade was doubtless facilitated by a system of good roads in existence at that time. There is no authentic information to say which of the roads took off from the administrative capital of the Bahmanis, but it is possible that a good arterial highway existed from Delhi to Daulatabad—a distance of 40 days' journey on foot. The roads from Daulatabad continued to the regions of Telangana and the Deccan.

During the days of the Vijayanagar Empire, there was a fine road from Bhatkal on the west coast to Vijayanagar and from there, this highway was linked to places in the Deccan. After the Mughal rule declined, the system of communications ceased to maintain the same standard, due to frequent wars in the Deccan plateau. Instead of well-maintained roads, there were only tracks. After the death of Aurangzeb, Nizam-ul-mulk Asaf Jah I declared his independence and began to rule the State of Hyderabad. It was only after this event that any real roadmaking commenced, in the interests of maintaining the lines of defence. The oldest road

in the district is the one which runs from Gulbarga to Ferozabad *via* Kotnur, Nandikur, Sirnur and Parwatabad. This road, which runs south from Gulbarga, was mainly used by defence forces from Gulbarga to Shorapur. During the rule of the successive Nizams, the construction of roads and their proper maintenance progressed. The Gulbarga–Humnabad road and the Gulbarga–Aurangabad road are also among the oldest in the district. The Paigah Jagirs had their own roads and these were maintained by the Jagirdars. The pattern of revenue administration of Gulbarga in the past was an obstacle in aligning long distance roads. Gulbarga, with the rest of the Hyderabad Dominion, shared the feudal order of Jagirs whose small territories had their own different systems of administration. The Jagirdars took little or no interest in laying out good roads. With the progressive implementation of Government policy of constructing good roads, the people of the district saw some new ventures, but the performance of that task was poor and not upto any known engineering standards. The roads which were in existence had no bridges or culverts with the result that during rainy days they were impassable. In recent years, the improvements in road communications have been steady. Several new bridges are under construction. The Amerja bridge on the Aland-Waghdhari road which forms a link between Gulbarga and Sholapur and the bridge across the Mullamari river on the Sulepet-Chincholi road which connects Chincholi and Gulbarga have been recently completed. A list giving details of bridges as in 1965 in the district having linear waterway of more than 100 feet is appended at the end of the Chapter.

There are a number of unbridged roads in the district, *viz.*, the Kodaganchi-Mahagaon Road called familiarly the K.M. Road, the Afzalpur-Hosur Road, the Chowdapura-Gulbarga Road and the Gulbarga-Gobbur Road. On these unbridged roads, the crossings are done by ferries. The Kagna causeway on the Gulbarga-Kodangal Road near Malkhed is the biggest causeway in the district.

There are 360 culverts and 15 causeways on the Gulbarga-Kodangal Road, one culvert near the eighth mile on the Chittapur-Malkhed Road, two in Mahboobnagar-Chincholi Road and eight in Afzalpur taluk. The following roads start from the neighbouring districts and pass through Gulbarga district.

Humnabad-Gulbarga Road.—Starts from the Bidar district border and ends in the district headquarters town.

Gulbarga-Kodangal Road.—Starts from Gulbarga district and ends at the border of Maharashtra State.

Aland-Umerga Road.—Starts from Aland in Gulbarga district and terminates to join the National Highway No. 9 at Umerga in the Osmanabad district of Maharashtra.

Aland-Waghdhari Road.—Starts and terminates at the Waghdhari border between Mysore and Maharashtra.

In the black cotton soil areas, the difficulties of road-making are many. Water-logging has always been a problem. During the monsoon season, the soft soil on the slopes tends to form channels and makes the surface wavy after the cessation of rains. These problems have been mostly overcome by modern methods of engineering.

Categories of Roads

The roads in the district are classified into various categories, *viz.*, State Highways, Major District Roads, Other District Roads and Village Roads. There are no National Highways in the district. The total road mileage in Gulbarga district was 1,064 miles and 3¾ furlongs in 1964. The State Highways in the confines of the district ran to a total length of 235 miles and 6¼ furlongs. In the category of Major District Roads, there was a total length of 226 miles and 3¼ furlongs. There was a length of 190 miles and 1½ furlongs of Other District Roads. Four hundred and twelve miles and three-fourths of a furlong came under the category of village roads. The surface-wise break-up of the total length of 1,064 miles and 3¾ furlongs is as follows :—

Cement concrete roads	..	2 miles and 5½ furlongs
Black-topped roads	..	296 miles and 7¾ furlongs
Metalled roads	..	264 miles and 4 furlongs
Other kinds of surface treatment		500 miles and 2½ furlongs

The Forest Department in the district was maintaining about 6 furlongs of road in Chincholi taluk.

Of the total length of 235 miles and six and a quarter furlongs of State Highways, the cement concreted portion came to two miles and five and a half furlongs, the black-topped to 185 miles and 2¾ furlongs, and the water-bound macadam surface to 47 miles and 6 furlongs.

The total length of Major District Roads was 226 miles and 3¼ furlongs. Of this length, 99 miles and 5¾ furlongs were black-topped, 66 miles and 5½ furlongs were of water-bound macadam surface and 60 miles had unmetalled surface.

Out of a total length of 190 miles and 1½ furlongs of Other District Roads, the black-topped portion was only 9 miles and 4 furlongs, the water-bound macadam portion was 119 miles and 5½ furlongs and the unmetalled portion was 61 miles.

Out of a total length of 412 miles and 3/4 furlong of village roads, the black-topped portion was 2 miles and 7¼ furlongs ;

30 miles and 3 furlongs had water-bound macadam surface and the rest had unmetalled surface.

In accordance with a Government Order dated 31st January 1961, a total length of 14 miles was taken over as State Fund Roads from local self-governing institutions.

A list indicating the names of the different roads in the district and their length is appended at the end of the chapter.

In Gulbarga district, the percentage of P.W.D. roads to the total mileage was 92 and the road mileage per square mile was 0.41 per cent in 1964. The road mileage for a lakh of population was 65. The percentage of road mileage in the district to the total road mileage in the State was 3.7.

The ten Taluk Boards in Gulbarga district were maintaining a total length of 71 miles and 3 furlongs of roads out of which 16 miles and 2 furlongs were metalled and the rest unmetalled.

It is proposed to take up shortly the Aland-Dudhni road at a cost of Rs. 15 lakhs. The length of this proposed road is 17 miles. It is also proposed to take up 94 miles of new roads at a cost of Rs. 79 lakhs. It cannot be said that the position in the district is quite satisfactory in respect of road communications. Several areas of the district have not been served with good roads. Attempts are being made to remedy this defect. Particulars of some important roads in the district are described hereunder.

State Highways

Humnabad-Gulbarga Road (Length–29 miles and 7½ furlongs).– This road enters the Gulbarga district near Bangargaon and Kinni on the Bidar district border to the north-east of Gulbarga town and runs south-west to the headquarters town. Of the total length of the road, only two miles and five and a half furlongs are cement concreted in the vicinity of Gulbarga town. The rest is black-topped. This road, which is one of the important State Highways, links Gulbarga with the northern district of Bidar and is bridged across the Bennithora river near Karikota in Gulbarga taluk. The Gulbarga-Bidar express buses run on this road. The road is well maintained and a heavy traffic of trucks, lorries and other vehicles passes through the highway. The road runs through Kapnur, Mathkota, Sargapur, Bachanhalla and on to Kinni where it enters the Bidar district. A portion of 16 miles of this road passes through hilly areas.

Gulbarga-Shahapur Road (Length—45 miles and 3½ furlongs) This road passes through Gulbarga, Jevargi and Shahapur taluks, crossing the Bhima river at Husainapur, some six miles from Jevargi. The road is completely metalled. From Gulbarga, this road takes a south-westerly direction up to Ferozabad, where it takes a curve upto Husainapur and then it runs straight south to

Shahapur. From Satargi to Husainapur, the Bhima river runs parallel to the road. With the completion of the Tintini bridge on the Krishna river, this road has assumed importance by affording a direct road link from Bidar to Bangalore *via* Gulbarga, Raichur and Bellary districts.

Jevargi-Jeratgi Road (Length—23 miles and one furlong).—The whole length of this road has a metalled surface and runs in a westerly direction from Jevargi, a taluk headquarters town, passing through Jagadaneni, Mandiwadi, Gurur and ends at Jeratgi which is on the border of Bijapur district. This road is an important means of communication between Jevargi taluk of Gulbarga district and Sindgi taluk of Bijapur district.

Khanapur-Lingsugur Road (Length—36 miles and 2 furlongs). The whole length of this road has a metalled surface. This road starts from Khanapur, an important village in Yadgir taluk, and runs south-west to Lingsugur in Raichur district, passing through Hathigudur, Shorapur, Devapur and Tintini, where a massive bridge has been constructed across the Krishna river.

Shahapur-Hathigudar Road (Length—7 miles and 4 furlongs).-The entire length of the road is metalled. Though the stretch of this road is a short one, it connects the Yadgir-Shorapur road at Hathigudur and as such is an important means of communication in Shahapur taluk. This road runs south-east from Shahapur and passes through Vibhutihalli and Rastapur. The road also runs parallel to the Mathangeri-Kangadi road.

Gulbarga-Kodangal Road (Length—48 miles and 2 furlongs).—This road runs southeast from Gulbarga upto Malkhed and then takes an easterly direction passing through Marbur, Mapti, Gundgurti, Kokanhalli, Seram, Kurkunta and leaves the Gulbarga district boundary near Hayyal. It serves as a direct route to Hyderabad city passing through Kodangal which was once a taluk in Gulbarga district and is now in Andhra Pradesh. Only ten miles of this road are metalled and the rest has a black-topped surface. Near Malkhed, a causeway is constructed across the Kagna river.

Gulbarga-Aland Road (Length—27 miles and 5¾ furlongs).—This is a wholly black-topped road and runs in a north-westerly direction to Aland, a taluk headquarters town, passing through Pattan, Lukma and Nilur. This road continues from Aland to Umerga.

Aland-Waghdhari Road (Length—14 miles and 5 furlongs).—This is a metalled road aligned to the north-western portion of the district. The road runs straight east upto Sirghambu and from there runs north-westwards to Waghdhari, the border between Mysore

and Maharashtra. There is plenty of traffic from Gulbarga to Maharashtra State on this road, which passes through Jirhalli, Nagalgaon and Sirghambu.

Major District Roads

Ghangapur-Pattan Road (Length—20 miles and 7 furlongs).—The whole length of this road is black-topped and forms an important means of communication in the western taluks of Gulbarga district. The stretch of road from Pattan to Bhamanhalli runs slightly south-westwards and then takes a southwardly direction to Ghangapur which is on the banks of the Bhima river. The Raichur-Bombay broad gauge railway line of the Central Railway cuts this road near Kognur, some 20 miles to the west of Gulbarga railway station. The Gulbarga-Afzalpur road crosses the Ghangapur-Pattan road near Chowdapura.

Aland-Umerga Road (Length—9 miles and 5 furlongs).—This is a black-topped road starting from Aland and terminating at Umerga which is in Osmanabad district in Maharashtra State. It connects the National Highway No. 9 at Umerga. This road runs straight north from Aland and passes through Chithli, Khajur and Salegaon. It is an important means of communication from Gulbarga to Marathwada. A large number of buses and lorries take this road from Gulbarga to the Marathwada districts of Maharashtra.

Chowdapur-Afzalpur Road (Length—13 miles and 5 furlongs). The entire length of this road is black-topped and runs straight west from Chowdapur to Mallabad. From Mallabad, the road goes in a south-westerly direction to Afzalpur, a taluk headquarters town, once a paigah area. The Gulbarga road takes off about one mile from Chowdapur on the Pattan-Ghangapur road. The entire vehicular traffic from the district headquarters town to Afzalpur passes through this road.

Hyderabad-Bijapur Road via *Shahapur* (Length—88 miles and ½ furlong):—This is the longest road in the district, affording communication from the Andhra Pradesh capital to Bijapur across Gulbarga district. Of the total length, 34 miles and 3 furlongs are black-topped, and 53 miles and 5½ furlongs have a metalled surface. The road from Hyderabad enters the district near Medhi in Seram taluk and runs to Gurmatkal in a south-westerly direction. From Gurmatkal, the road runs straight south to Gunjnur and from there, runs west to Yadgir. It takes a south-westerly direction to Khanapur, crossing the Bhima river near Najkal. From Khanapur, the road runs westwards to Shahapur passing through Rawinahalli, then south-eastwards to Hathigudur from where it runs to Shorapur and to Devapur which is some two miles from the Krishna river. From this point, the road runs straight west to Talikot in Bijapur district, a historical place, where the battle of 1565 laid low the

might of the Vijayanagar Empire. The Gulbarga-Bijapur express buses of the Mysore Road Transport Corporation run on this road.

Seram-Gurmatkal Road (Length—12 miles).—This road has other kinds of surface treatment and runs straight from Seram to Gajerpet. From Gajerpet, it runs south-eastwards to Gurmatkal passing through Kottarki and Yadlapur. This is an important Major District Road in the eastern portion of Gulbarga district.

Afzalpur-Hosur Road via *Karajgi and Mannur* (Length—25 miles) :—This is a road in the extreme north-west of the district. From Afzalpur, it runs north-westwards to Karajgi and from Karajgi, it goes westwards to Mannur. From Mannur, the road runs straight north to Hosur which lies close to the Maharashtra State boundary.

Seram to Sulepet (Length—18 miles and 6 furlongs).—This is a road running northwards from Seram and crossing the Kagna river some four miles from Seram. This road is also called the Seram-Chincholi road. Vehicles going from Gulbarga to Chincholi must pass through this road, as communications in the north-eastern portions of the district are scanty.

Chittapur to Malkhed (Length—8 miles and 2 furlongs).—This road has a black-topped surface and runs north-eastwards from Chittapur. Malkhed is a famous historical place. The line of communication of this portion is in good condition. The road joins the Gulbarga-Seram road at Malkhed, which is on the banks of the Kagna river

Other District Roads

Devapur-Mallur Road (Length—21 miles and 1 furlong).—The entire length of this road is metalled and runs slightly north-westwards upto Wajal and then takes a curve south-westwards to reach Hunsagi. From Hunsagi, the road runs straight east to Mallur, a village near the Bijapur district border. This road is also called the Shorapur-Talikot road.

Malla-Kembhavi and Hunsagi Road (Length—20 miles and 1 furlong) —This is also a metalled road running straight southwards upto Hunsagi which is on the Devapur-Mallur road. The road passes through Kembhavi, Thogihalli, Islampur and Devapur, all in Shorapur taluk.

Shorapur-Kembhavi Road (Length—18 miles and 6 furlongs).—This is a road running north-westwards from Shorapur, passing through Malgatti. Most of the Vehicular traffic from Gulbarga district to the adjoining Bijapur district passes through this road.

Mallabad-Kulali Railway Station Road (Length—9 miles and 6 furlongs).—The entire length of this road has a metalled surface and runs straight north from Mallabad to Kulali railway station, an important station on the Raichur-Poona broad gauge line. The road passes through Rewar.

Hunsagi-Kodekal Road (Length—14 miles).—The entire length of this road is metalled and runs southwards from Hunsagi upto Kammatgi. From this point, the road takes a curve towards west and reaches Kodekal, a village close to Bijapur district.

Village Roads

There were in all 47 village roads in the district, as indicated below :—

Sl. No.	*Name of Road*	*Miles*	*Furlongs*
1.	Chittapur—Nagai Road	2	0
2.	Chincholi to Bangur *via* Karknalli (upto District border)	8	0
3.	Road from Afzalpur to Soan	3	0
4.	Marbur—Kalgi Road	12	0
5.	Road from Seram to Sulepet *via* Nidgunda	18	6
6.	Road from Tonsanhalli to Gobbur *via* Kirangi and Farhatabad	16	0
7.	Chinchansur—Bodhan Road	4	0
8.	Approach Road from H.G. Road, miles 30/2 to Harsoor village	6	0
9.	Karajgi to Boratti Railway Station upto Maharashtra border *via* Mashal ..	7	0
10.	Revoor to Dudhani (upto Maharashtra border *via* Arjungi)	4	4
11.	Road from Chimanchod to Chengta ..	14	0
12.	Road from Kamalapur to Okli	3	0
13.	Sirwal—Dudhani Road	9	6
14.	Approach Road from G.K. Road to Seram town	0	4¾
15.	Afzalpur—Bellurgi Road upto Maharashtra border	7	2
16.	Road from Aland to Tadkal (Road from Aland to Salgera *via* Tadkal)	6	0
17.	Road from Nagai base to join Chittapur—Yadgir Road	0	6
18.	Kellur—Andola Road	3	6
19.	Mirakal—Minaspur Road	7	0
20.	Tintini to Balshettihal	10	4
21.	Road from Ramasamudra to Saidapur upto P.W.D. Road	12	6

Sl. No.	Name of Road	Miles	Furlongs
22.	Jevargi—Raddewadi Road	2	5
23.	Yadgir—Seram Road (Yadgir—Hattikuni)	8	0
24.	Gurmutkal—Putpak Road	7	0
25.	Hedgi—Malla Road	8	0
26.	Gowhar approach road	2	6
27.	Raddewadi to Kollur	2	3
28.	Needalgi—Hangerga Road	12	0
29.	Wadgera to Wandagnoor	6	0
30.	Raynoor to Kudi	12	0
31.	Neelogi approach road	3	6
32.	Jeratgi—Itga Road	14	0
33.	Soan to Alur Road	8	0
34.	Belwar to Balbathi	4	0
35.	Balbathi to Channal	6	0
36.	Yadgir- Chittapur Road (Narabole section)	10	0
37.	Rangampeth—Saidapur—Gogi Road ..	16	0
38.	Kodekal—Talikot Road (Kodekal—Markinal section)	6	0
39.	Shorapur—Muddebihal Road (Ammapur—Agnikeribhavi section)	16	0
40.	Kembhavi—Peerapur—Talikot Road) Ammapur—Peerapur section)	4	0
41.	Kakkera—Devatkal—Halammapur Road ..	14	0
42.	Jamalpur—Balshettihal Road	6	0
43.	Khanapur—Kurkunda—Gadgera—Bilhar—Bendibembli Road	22	0
44.	Shahapur—Sirwal—Anbi Naribole Road	14	0
45.	Hathigudi—Bendibembli Road	21	0
46.	Road from Gulbarga to Narona *via* Sultanpur, Chinchansur and Kalhangerga ..	16	0
47.	Jamalpur— Nagabevinhal Road *via* Rayangola	14	0

Vehicles and Conveyances

The common public conveyance in urban areas is the pony-driven tonga. These are found in Gulbarga town, Yadgir, Chittapur and other places. Most of these tongas are licensed by the municipalities. Bicycles are the usual conveyance in towns for going from place to place. Cycle rickshaws, though common in Hyderabad-Karnatak towns, are not very popular in Gulbarga. The bullock cart has been the usual means of transport in the rural areas Many of the cultivators have their own carts for carrying manure and transporting crops from one place to the other. The total number of bullock carts in use in the district in 1961 was 32,838.

Ferries

The principal rivers in the district, *viz.*, Krishna, Bhima, Kagna and Mullamari are crossed by ferries. As bridge-construction in the district has not yet progressed very much, ferrying across rivers in bamboo floats is a common sight. Most of these ferries charge a small amount for the crossing. When the rivers

are not in spate, ferrying is easy. On days when the rivers are swollen, ferrying of passengers is suspended.

Modern Transport

The total number of motor vehicles registered by the Regional Transport Authority as on 30th November 1965 was 1,244. The following table indicates the extent to which modern transport has been licensed in the district.

Motor cycles ..	388
Motor cars ..	209
Jeeps ..	159
Autorickshas ..	15
Motor cabs ..	3
Omnibuses ..	28
Private buses .	20
Road Transport Corporation buses ..	92
Private lorries ..	76
Public carriers ..	204
Contract carriages ..	6
Tractors ..	20
Trailers ..	23
Others ..	1

The State Road Transport Corporation authorities are operating passenger buses on schedule. There were in all 58 monopoly routes and five non-monopoly routes operated by the Mysore State Road Transport Corporation. Modern bus stations at Gulbarga and Mahagaon have been completed and the work of construction of bus stations at Yadgir and Ghangapur was in progress. Bus depots with workshops have been located at Gulbarga and Yadgir. Express buses are being run from Gulbarga to Bijapur, Bidar, Shorapur and *vice versa*. There are many Road Transport Corporation buses going from Gulbarga to neighbouring districts. Gulbarga is one of the operating divisions under the control of the Mysore State Road Transport Corporation and the operations conducted by this division extend to the three districts of Raichur, Gulbarga and Bidar.

In the Gulbarga region, all the services on the Public Works Department roads have been nationalised and only a few interior routes are operated by private operators. Nationalisation of passenger transport services was initiated in this region as early as 1936 when certain routes in Humnabad and Yadgir pockets were taken over by the Hyderabad Road Transport Department which came into existence in 1932 as a subsidiary department of the Nizam's State Railway. The Road Transport Department was separated from the Railways in 1952 when the Nizam's State Railway was integrated with the Indian Railways and was managed departmentally by the Government of Hyderabad till the reorganisation of States in 1956. Subsequently, the road transport ser-

vices operated by the four depots of Humnabad, Yadgir, Raichur and Lingsugur were taken over by the Mysore State Road Transport Department, on 1st November 1956. Since the States' re-organisation, considerable progress has been achieved in the operational activities in this region. The headquarters offices of the division which were formerly at Raichur were shifted to Gulbarga in 1960. The operational position as on 1st September 1965 in respect of Gulbarga district was as follows :—

Number of routes	63
Route mileage	6,747
Vehicles held	96
Vehicles operated	55
Number of employees	546
Depots	2

The seating capacity of the Road Transport Corporation buses varies from 37 to 48. Twenty-five per cent of the seating capacity of the vehicles is allowed for standing passengers, subject to a maximum of ten passengers.

Private Bus Routes

In addition to the buses operated by the Mysore Road Transport Corporation, the Regional Transport Authority has given route permits to several private bus owners. These services are being operated in all the taluks of the district.

Railways

Gulbarga district has two broad gauge sections operated by the Central Railway system. The lines are — (1) Raichur to Bombay passing through Gulbarga and (2) Wadi to Secunderabad passing through Chittapur and Seram. In close proximity to the district headquarters town and on the main Madras-Bombay broad gauge line is the important junction of Wadi, whence lines branch off to Bombay, Madras, Secunderabad, Hyderabad and Vijayawada. The broad gauge line from Madras to Bombay enters the district at a point on the Krishna river railway bridge and leaves the district near Dudhni. The total length of this section of the railway line in the district is 164 kilometres. The broad gauge portion of the Raichur-Sholapur section was laid between 1861-1871 At that time, it was felt that a direct rail communication was necessary between the presidencies of Madras and Bombay. Originally, the Great Indian Peninsular Railway Company administered the line. Later on, the Government of India took over the section in 1944. After independence, the Great Indian Peninsular system was merged in the Central Railway system. This line which enters the district in Yadgir taluk runs from south east to north-west upto Yadgir and from there takes a northerly direction upto Gulbarga town. From Gulbarga, the line runs from east to west, emerging out of the district near Dudhni. This section has the following important railway stations en route: Krishna, Narayanapeth Road, Yadgir, Thangundi, Nalvar, Wadi,

Shahabad, Martur, Gulbarga, Savalgi, Ghangapur Road, Kulali and Dudhni.

In the Wadi-Secunderabad section, there is a total length of 43 kilometres in Gulbarga district, running slightly north-east from Wadi junction. The railway stations on this broad gauge route are Wadi, Chittapur, Malkhed Road, Seram and Kurkunta. The question of connecting Hyderabad with the Madras-Bombay broad gauge line was considered by the Nizam's Government in October 1873. In 1874, the line from Wadi to Secunderabad was opened for traffic. This line was administered by the Great Indian Peninsular Railway till the end of 1878. From 1878 to 1884, the State Railway Agency was in charge of operational activities. In January 1885, the Nizam's Guaranteed State Railway took it over and worked the section till the 31st March 1930. On 1st April 1930 this section of the railway was purchased by the Nizam and was operated by the Hyderabad Government. When the zonal system was introduced after independence, this section was included in the Central Railway.

There has not been any expansion of the railways since these two important lines were laid, though there has been a persistent agitation by the public to open a line from Gulbarga to Bidar *via* Humnabad. The railway lines in the district have played a noteworthy part in the economic life of the area. The main exports from Wadi junction, Gulbarga, Chittapur, Yadgir and Seram are jola (jowar), cotton, groundnuts and other oilseeds.

Travel Facilities

Facilities for pilgrims and travellers have been provided in Inspection Bungalows and Travellers' Bungalows which are maintained by the State Public Works Department. The chavadies, which are akin to the village chavadies in the old Mysore area, are quite numerous in the taluks of the district. These are maintained by village panchayats and each has one or two unfurnished rooms. Travellers and officials on work are lodged here without any payment of rent. There are seven chavadies in Gulbarga taluk, three in Chittapur taluk, seven in Yadgir taluk, 19 in Shahapur taluk, 21 in Shorapur taluk, 18 in Jevargi taluk, one in Aland taluk, four in Chincholi taluk, one in Seram taluk and none in Afzalpur taluk.

Though the district was under various dynasties and has innumerable historical relics, tourism as such has not developed on modern lines. No doubt, people visit in large numbers Rajankollur in Shorapur taluk and Gogi and Vibhuthihalli in Shahapur taluk to see some of the famous historical relics. Yergol village in Yadgir taluk is important as the place where Sri Tikacharya, the celebrated commentator of Madhva philosophy, wrote his treatise, Nyayasudha. This place is frequented by large numbers of Madhva devotees. Some *dharmashalas* have beeen constructed by devotees

at this place. Mudnur, yet another place in Shorapur taluk, is the birth-place of Sri Devara Dasimayya, a pioneer *vachanakara* in Kannada literature. This place is also visited by devotees. Devapur village in Shorapur taluk is said to be the birth-place of the celebrated poet Lakshmisha, the author of *Jaimini Bharatha*. Those interested in Kannada literature frequent this place. Ancient buildings built at the time of the Bijapur Sultans exist in Gogi in Shahapur taluk which are visited by sightseers. The fort at Yadgir was built by the Yadava kings and is worth a visit. The mosque in Gulbarga fort is the only one of its kind in India, being covered all through. Many Muslim pilgrims visit this place. Aralgundgi in Jevargi taluk was the home of Sri Sharanabasaveshwara, whose famous shrine is situated in Gulbarga town. Tintini on the banks of the Krishna river and Kodekal village in Shorapur taluk are famous for temples and dargahs which are venerated by both Hindus and Muslims. Malkhed in Seram taluk is historically famous and is also a religious centre. The Rashtrakutas had their administrative capital here. The *brindavan* of Sri Tikacharya is situated here. Ghangapur in Afzalpur taluk is a famous centre of pilgrimage. Travellers and pilgrims who visit all these places are lodged in private dharmashalas, sarais and Government rest houses. A list of the rest houses and dak bungalows, maintained by the State Public Works Department, is appended at the end of the chapter. Generally, one or two suites in the Travellers' Bungalows are reserved for Government officers on duty and these are called Inspection Bungalows.

Aiwan-e-Shahi Guest House

Under the direct supervision of the Deputy Commissioner, Gulbarga, there is a fine guest house called the Aiwan-e-Shahi Circuit House located not far from the Gulbarga railway station. This building is pretty old and was once the palace of the Nizams. The Nizams used to stay in this building when they paid visits to Gulbarga during the annual *urus*. After the States' reorganisation, the building was converted into a circuit house for the use of visitors. There are two well-furnished suites with all modern comforts. The other portion of the Aiwan-e-Shahi building houses the office and the official residence of the Divisional Commissioner. Close by, there is a rest house for the use of officials on duty.

Hotels and lodging houses are situated in all urban areas. Gulbarga town has quite a large number of coffee hotels, tea stalls, lodging houses, vegetarian and non-vegetarian eating houses and furnished or unfurnished rooms for occupation. Railway retiring rooms are provided in Wadi junction, from where travellers can go to places like Malkhed, Shorapur, Gulbarga and other centres.

Postal and Telegraph Facilities

The Indian Posts and Telegraphs Department is providing the postal, telegraph and telephone facilities in the district. The Superintendent of Post Offices, Gulbarga Division, who has

his headquarters in Gulbarga town looks after the work of all the three districts in Hyderabad Karnatak—Gulbarga, Bidar and Raichur. This officer is directly responsible to the Post Master-General in Bangalore. There are four postal sub-divisions in the district, two with headquarters in Gulbarga town, one at Yadgir and one at Seram managed by Inspectors of Post Offices. The strength of departmental officials in the district in 1965 working directly under the Superintendent of Post Offices was as follows :—

Higher selection grade staff	..	2
Lower selection grade staff	..	9
Clerical staff	..	98

The number of post offices in the district in 1965 was as follows :—

Head office at Gulbarga	..	1
Sub-offices including extra-departmental offices.	..	28
Extra-departmental branch offices	..	382

Combined Post Offices

Combined post and telegraph offices in the district are located at the following places :—

Gulbarga Head Office, Aland Combined Sub-Office, Chittapur Combined Sub-Office, Gulbarga Railway Station Sub-Office, Seram Sub-Office, Shahabad Sub-Office, Shahapur Combined Sub-Office, Shorapur Combined Sub-Office, Wadi Combined Sub-Office, Yadgir Combined Sub-Office, Nehruganj Sub-Office (Gulbarga town), Saidapur Combined Sub-Office and Yadgir Railway Station Sub-Office.

There are no separate departmental telegraph offices anywhere in the district.

Telephone Exchanges

Telephone exchanges are located in Gulbarga, Aland, Chittapur, Seram, Shahabad, Yadgir and Wadi (P.C.O.) which is a repeater station. Automatic telephone exchanges are located in Aland and Shahabad, and the rest are manual exchanges. The following statement indicates the number of connections in each exchange :—

Aland (Automatic)	..	8 lines
Chittapur (Manual)	..	14 lines
Gulbarga (Manual)	..	200 lines
Seram (Manual)	..	17 lines
Shahabad (Automatic)	..	10 lines
Yadgir (Manual)	..	55 lines
Wadi Repeater Station	..	Public Call Office

Telephone facilities.—Telephone facilities for the use of the public are provided in various post offices in the district. The following is the list where such facilities exist : Gulbarga Head Post Office, Aland, Gulbarga Railway Station Sub-Office, Shahabad Combined Sub-Office, Yadgir, Chittapur, Seram, Wadi, Saidapur, Shorapur and Shahapur.

Statement showing the details of Road Mileage in charge of Public Works Department, Gulbarga Division, as on 31st March 1964.

Sl. No.	Name of Road	Total length		Cement concreted		Black-topped		Metalled		Other kinds of surface treatment	
1	2	3		4		5		6		7	
		M.	F.	M.	F.	M.	F.	M.	F.	M.	F.
I.	**National Highway—**	..		..		Nil		..		..	
II.	**State Highways—**										
1.	Humnabad—Gulbarga Road ..	29	7[illegible]	2	5[illegible]	27	2	..	..	..	..
2	Gulbarga—Shahapur Road ..	20	0	..	..	20	0	..	..	..	..
3.	Gulbarga—Kodangal Road ..	48	2	..	..	38	2	10	0	..	..
4.	Gulbarga—Aland Road ..	27	5[illegible]	..	..	27	5[illegible]	..	..	..	..
5.	Aland—Wagdhari Road ..	14	5	..	..	..	..	14	5	..	..
	Total ..	140	4[illegible]	2	5[illegible]	113	1[illegible]	24	5		..
III.	**Major District Roads—**										
1	Sinnur—Shahabad Branch Road	10	7[illegible]	..	..	10	7[illegible]	..	..	..	..
2.	Ghangapur—Pattan Road ..	20	7	..	..	20	7	..	..	..	..
3.	Aland—Umerga Road ..	9	5	..	..	9	5	..	..	..	..
4.	Chowdapur—Afzalpur Road ..	13	5	..	..	13	5	..	..	..	..
5.	Kadganchi—Mahagaon Road ..	32	0	..	..	1	4	7	0	23	4
6	Seram—Gurmatkal Road ..	12	0	..	..	..	..	..	..	12	0
7.	Road from Chowdapur to Gobbur	6	0	..	..	..	..	6	0	..	..
8.	Road from Afzalpur to Hosur *via* Karajgi and Mannur ..	25	0	..	..	..	..	..	..	25	0
9.	Road from Chittapur to Malkhed	8	2	..	..	8	2	..	..	..	..
	Total ..	188	2[illegible]	..	..	64	6[illegible]	13	0	60	4
IV.	**Other District Roads—**										
1.	Mahboobnagar—Chincholi Road	9	4	..	..	9	4	..	..	..	..
2.	Chima Idlai to Dongergaon upto H.G.—P.W.D. Road ..	19	0	..	..	..	..	7	4	11	4
3.	Road from Mallabad to Kulali Railway Station ..	9	6	..	..	..	..	9	6	..	..
4.	Sulepet—Chincholi Road ..	6	5[illegible]	..	..	..	..	6	5[illegible]	..	..
	Total ..	44	7[illegible]	..	..	9	4	23	7[illegible]	11	4

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
V.	**Village Roads—**					
1	Chittapur—Nagai Road .	2 0	.. ..	2 0	.. ..	..
2	Chincholi to Bangur *via* Karkanalli (upto district border) .	8 0	.. ..	.. ..	.. ..	8 0
3	Road from Afzalpur to Soan ..	3 0	.. ..	.. ..	.. ..	3 0
4	Marbur—Kalgi Road ..	12 0	.. ..	.. ..	.. ..	12 0
5	Road from Seram to Sulepet *via* Nidgunda ..	18 6	.. ..	.. ..	.. ..	18 6
6	Road from Tonsanhalli to Gobbur *via* Kirangi and Farhatabad .	16 0	.. ..	.. ..	.. ..	16 0
7	Road from Gulbarga to Narona *via* Sultanpur	16 0	.. ..	.. ..	.. ..	16 0
8	Chunchansur—Bodhan Road	4 0	.. ..	.. ..	.. ..	4 0
9	Approach road from H. G. Road miles 30/2 to Harsoor village	6 0	.. ..	.. ..	.. ..	6 0
10	Karajgi to Boratti Railway Station upto Maharashtra border *via* Mashal ..	7 0	.. ..	.. ..	.. ..	7 0
11	Revoor to Dudhani (upto Maharashtra border *via* Arjungi)	4 4	.. ..	.. ..	.. ..	4 4
12	Road from Chimanchod to Chengta .	14 0	.. ..	.. ..	.. ..	14 0
13	Road from Kamalapur to Okli	3 0	.. ..	.. ..	.. ..	3 0
14	Sirwal—Dudhni Road ..	9 6	.. ..	.. ..	.. ..	9 6
15	Approach road from G. K. Road to Seram town ..	0 4¾	.. ..	0 4¾	.. ..	.. ..
16	Afzalpur—Bellurgi Road upto Maharashtra border ..	7 2	.. ..	.. ..	.. ..	7 2
17	Road from Aland to Tadkal (Road from Aland to Salgera *via* Tadkal) .	6 0	.. ..	.. ..	.. ..	6 0
18	Road from Nagai base to join Chittapur—Yadgir Road .	0 6	.. ..	0 2½	.. ..	0 3½
	Total ..	138 4¾	.. ..	2 7¼	.. ..	135 5½

Statement showing the details of road mileage in charge of the Public Works Department, Yadgir Division, as on the 31st March 1964.

Sl. No.	*Name of Road*	*Total length*	*Cement concreted*	*Black topped*	*Metalled*	*Other kinds of surface treatment*
1	2	3	4	5	6	7
		M.F.	*M.F.*	*M.F.*	*M.F.*	*M.F.*
I.	**National Highway** ...	..	..	*Nil*	..	..
II.	**State Highways—**					
1.	Gulbarga—Shahapur Road ..	28 3	..	28 3	..	..
2.	Jevargi—Jeratgi Road ..	23 1	..	..	23 1	..
3.	Khanapur—Lingsugur Road ..	36 2	..	36 2	..	..
4.	Shahapur—Hathigudur Road ..	7 4	..	7 4	..	..
	Total ..	95 2	..	72 1	23 1	..
III.	**Major District Roads—**					
1.	Hyderabad—Bijapur Road *via* Shahapur.	88 ½	..	34 3	53 5½	..
	Total ..	88 ½	..	34 3	53 5½	..
IV.	**Other District Roads—**					
1.	Devapur—Malnoor Road ..	21 1	..	..	21 1	..
2.	Malla Kembhavi-Hunsagi Road..	20 1	..	..	20 1	..
3.	Hunsagi—Kodekal Road (Narayanpur Road)	24 0	..	..	24 0	..
4.	Saidapur Branch Road ..	15 6	..	..	5 6	10 0
5.	Shahapur—Kembhavi Road ..	18 6	..	..	8 0	10 6
6.	Kowdimatti—Ammapur Road ..	6 0	..	..	6 0	..
7.	Road from Chigerhalli-Idin Ijeri Road.	25 0	..	..	9 0	16 0
8.	Yadgir—Wadgera Road ..	10 2	..	..	1 6	8 4
9.	Rasthapur—Sagar Road ..	4 2	..	..	..	4 2
	Total ..	145 2	..	..	95 6	49 4

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
V.	**Village Roads—**					
1	Kellur—Andola Road ..	3 6	..	..	3 6	..
2.	Mirakal--Minaspur Road .	7 0	..	..	7 0	..
3.	Timtini to Balshettihal .	10 4	..	..	..	10 4
4.	Road from Ramasamudra to Saidapur upto P.W.D. Road.	12 6	..	..	9 0	3 6
5.	Jevargi Raddiwadi Road ..	2 5	..	..	2 5	..
6	Yadgir - Seram Road (Yadgir-- Hattikuni)	8	..	..	8	..
7	Gurmatkal --Putpak Road .	7 0	..	..	..	7 0
8.	Hedgi - Malla Road	8 0	..	..	..	8 0
9	Gowhar Approach Road .	2 6	..	..	..	2 6
10.	Raddewadi - Kollur Road ..	2 3	..	..	..	2 3
11	Needalgi Hangerga Road	12 0	..	..	..	12 0
12	Wadgera Wandagnoor Road..	6 0	..	..	..	6 0
13	Raynoor - Kudi Road .	12 0	..	..	..	12 0
14	Neelogi Approach Road	3 6	..	..	..	3 6
15	Jeratgi Itga Road .	14 0	..	..	..	14 0
16	Soan Alur Road	8 0	..	..	..	8 0
17.	Belwar --Balbatti Road ..	4 0	..	..	..	4 0
18	Balbatti to Channel .	6 0	..	..	..	6 0
19	Yadgir Chittapur Road (Narabone section).	10 0	..	..	..	10 0
20	Rangampeth—Saidapur—Gogi Road ..	16 0	..	..	..	16 0
21	Kodekal - Talikot Road (Kodekal- -Markinal section)	6 0	..	.	..	6 0
22	Shorapur Muddebihal Road (Ammapur Agnikeribhavi section).	16 0	..	..	..	16 0
23	Kembhavi --Peerapur - Talikot Road (Ammapur Peerapur section)	4 0	..	..	..	4 0
24	Kakkera -Devatkal--Halammapur Road	14 0		..	..	14 0
25	Jamalpur Nagabevinhal Road *via* Rayangola.	14 0	.	..	..	14 0
26	Jamalpur - Balshettihal Road	6 0	..	..	..	6 0
27	Khanapur-- Kurkunta-- Gadgera- Bilhar Bendibembli Road.	22 0	.	..	..	22 0
28	Shahapur- Sirwal - Anbinaribole Road	14 0	..	..	..	14 0
29	Hathigudi Bendibembli Road	21 0	..	..	..	21 0
	Total ..	273 4	..	..	30 3	243 1

Statement showing particulars of Bridges as in 1965 in Gulbarga district, having a linear waterway of more than a 100 feet

Sl. No.	Name of Road	Location	River drainage *i.e.*, catchment area	Waterway		Linear water-way	Type of decking	Road width over bridge	Cost of bridge
				Span length	No. of spans				
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
									Rs.
1.	Chowdapur–Afzalpur Road (Amerja Causeway).	0/8	400 sq. miles.	21′	10	210′	R.C.C. slab.	22′	1,41,341
2.	Gulbarga–Humnabad Road	8/0	100 sq. miles	30′	9	270′	Arched	18′	..
3.	Gulbarga–Kodangal Road Causeway	23/3	2,00 sq. miles	30′	21	630′	R.C.C.	22′	5,00,000
4.	Gulbarga—Aland Road (Bridge).	19/7	45 sq. miles.	20′	5	100′	,,	21′	..
5.	Aland–Umerga Road (Bridge).	5/2	9 sq. miles	20′	5	100′	,,	21′	..
6.	Humnabad–Gulbarga Road (Bridge).	24/1	692.5 sq. miles	60′	9	540′	Arched	15′	..
7.	Humnabad–Gulbarga Road (Bridge).	33/1	2.5 sq. miles.	30′	5	150′	,,	18′	..
8.	Gulbarga–Kodangal Road (Gundgurthi Causeway).	16/7	185 sq. miles.	4′	25	100′	R.C.C.	21′	..
9.	do (Culvert)	28/0	4.44 sq. miles.	8′	13	104′	,,	21′	..
10.	Gulbarga–Sholapur Road ..	20/4	22.687 sq. miles.	75′	10	750′	R.C.C.	22′	14,66,995

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
									Rs.
11.	Sulepet-Chincholi Road	6/5	574 sq. miles	60′	10	600′	R.C.C.	24′	8,03,000
12.	Aland-Waghdari Road ..	3/0	134 sq. miles	20′	18	360′	Arched masonry	22′	2,37,000
13.	Hyderabad–Bijapur Road (Bridge).	60/3	.	25′	9	225′	R C C.	18′	..
14.	Chittapur–Malkhed Road (Bridge).	10/0	62.50 sq. miles.	10′	20	200′	R.C.C.	18′	73,000
15.	Hyderabad–Bijapur Road Bhima Bridge near Yadgir.	120/7	25.488 sq. miles.	60′	19	1,140′	Stone	22′	8,79,358
16.	Siddapur Branch Road (Causeway across Nandepally).	3/4	5.34 sq. miles	4 Dia Hume Pipe.	90	360′	R.C.C. Slab	18′	1,22,725
17.	Gulbarga–Shahapur Road (Siddapur Culvert).	41/2	9 sq. miles	10′	10	100′	Arched	18′	..
18.	Gulbarga–Shahapur Road (Jevargi Nala Bridge).	23/5	9 sq. miles	20′	6	120′	„	18′	..
19.	Gulbarga–Shahapur Road (Mudbal Nala Culvert).	33/6	„	8′	20	160′	„	18′	..
20.	Khanapur–Lingsugur Road (Lakshmipur Nala Bridge).	18/6	45.5 sq. miles.	20′	6	120′	„	18′	..
21.	Khanapur–Lingsugur Road (Konganda Nala Bridge).	14/4	44 sq. miles	20′	6	120′	„	18′	..

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
									Rs.
22.	Hyderabad–Bijapur Road (Koralgere Nala Causeway).	166/2	120 sq. miles	8′	29	232′	..	18′	..
23.	Hyderabad–Bijapur Road (Handnoor Nala Bridge).	161/5	30 sq. miles	10′	27	270′	..	18′	..
24.	Khanapur–Lingsugur Road (Near Tintini)	35/0	20,325 sq. miles.	101.5′	19	1,928′	R.C.C. balance cantilever box girder.	24′	25,83,700
25.	Khanapur–Lingsugur Road (Devapur Bridge)	27/0	325 sq. miles	63′	7	441′	R.C.C. T. beam and slab.	24′	6,52,700
26.	Hyderabad–Bijapur Road	142/3	7·28 sq. miles	4 Dia Pipe	21	117′	R.C.C. wearing coat 3″ thick	24′	86,000

Particulars of Dak Bungalows, Tourist Homes and Store-*cum*-Rest Houses in Gulbarga P W D. Division.

Sl No.	*Name of the Bungalow*	*Class*	*Location*	*Approach road and distance from the nearest main road*	*Distance from the nearest railway station*	*Mileage of the point where the approach road branches off*
1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1.	Travellers' Bungalow, Gulbarga	I	Near Railway Station, Gulbarga.	Nearly one furlong	Nearly one furlong	...
2.	Tourist Home, Gulbarga	.	Gulbarga Town	Two furlongs	1½ miles	1 mile from Railway Station on Gulbarga-Humnabad road
3.	Inspection Bungalow, Aland ..	II	Aland Town	On Gulbarga-Aland Road.	25 miles from Ghangapur Railway Station.	On the Gulbarga-Aland Road at mile 25/6
4.	Do Afzalpur .	II	Afzalpur Town	Nil	22 miles	13/6
5.	Do Chincholi ..	II	Chincholi Town	On Mahboobnagar-Chincholi Road.	19 miles from Tandur	....
6.	Do Chittapur ..	II	Chittapur Town	8 miles 2 furlongs from Gulbarga-Kodangal Road.	Near railway station	8 miles 2 furlongs
7.	Do Bhosga ..	II	One mile away from 4/4 of Gulbarga-Aland Road.	One mile	7 miles	4/4 of Gulbarga-Aland Road.
8.	Do Malkhed ..	II	Malkhed, Chittapur Taluk	Near Junction of Gulbarga-Kodangal road and Chittapur-Malkhed road	4 miles	On Main Road
9.	Do Ghangapur (Deval) ..	II	Ghangapur, Afzalpur Taluk	..	10 miles	....
10.	Do Seram ..	II	Seram Town	..	4 furlongs	On Gulbarga-Kodanga Road
	Store-*cum*-rest houses—					
	(i) At Ratkal—Chincholi Taluk			25 miles from Gulbarga railway station	On Kurkola-Sulepet road	miles 9
	(ii) At Kodli—Chincholi Taluk			31 miles do	do	miles 15

Particulars of Dak Bungalows, etc. in Gulbarga P.W.D. Division—(*Contd.*)

Sl. No.	*Name of the Bungalow*	*Facilities available like cook, utensils, furniture, water, light, etc.*	*Number of suites, etc.*	*Name of places of interest nearby and distance*
		8	9	10
1.	Travellers' Bungalow, Gulbarga	Fully furnished and all facilities available.	4 Suites; 2 T.B. and 2 I.B.	Sri Sharana Basaveshwara Temple and Khwaja Bande Nawaz Dargah.
2.	Tourist Home, Gulbarga ..	Do ..	14	Do
3.	Inspection Bungalow, Aland ..	All facilities provided except electric light.	2	Dargah and shrine of Ladlay Mashaik at Aland.
4.	Do Afzalpur ..	Do	2	Ghangapur Temple—18 miles.
5.	Do Chincholi ..	Utensils, furniture and water ..	2	....
6.	Do Chittapur ..	Light, furniture and utensils ..	2	Nagai 2 miles; Malkhed 8 miles 2 furlongs.
7.	Do Bhosga ..	No facility except furniture ..	2	Bhosga Tank.
8.	Do Malkhed ..	All facilities provided ..	2	Sri Tikacharya Temple on the bank of river Kagna.
9.	Do Ghangapur (Deval)	Do ..	2	Sri Datta Temple on the bank of river Bhima
10.	Do Seram ..	Do ..	2	....

Particulars of Dak Bungalows in Yadgir P.W.D Division

Sl. No.	Name of the Bungalow	Class	Location	Approach road and distance from the nearest main road	Distance from the nearest Rly Stn.	Mileage of the point where the approach road branches off
1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1.	Travellers' Bungalow, Yadgir	II	Yadgir town	By the side of Hyderabad - Bijapur Road	Yadgir one furlong	H-B. Road 120
2.	Inspection Bungalow, Yadgir	II	Yadgir town	By the side of H B Road	4 furlongs	H.B. Road 120
3.	Inspection Bungalow, Gurmatkal.	II	Gurmatkal, Yadgir taluk	By the side of Hyderabad—Bijapur Road	25 miles from Yadgir by road.	H-B. Road 96.
4.	Inspection Bungalow, Killenkera.	II	Village Killenkera, Yadgir taluk.	Narayanpet-S-B. Road.	5 miles from Saidapur Rly. station.	14/3 of S-B. Road.
5.	Inspection Bungalow, Karni.	II	Village Karni, Yadgir taluk.	1 mile from S-B. Road	Narayanpet Road 12 miles.	4/3 of S-B. Road
6.	Inspection Bungalow, Azlapur	II	Azlapur, Yadgir taluk,	7 miles from S-B Road	19 miles	4/3 of S-B Road.
7.	Inspection Bungalow, Minaspur.	II	Minaspur, Yadgir taluk.	3 miles from M. M. Road.	21 miles from Yadgir.	24/5 of M-M. Road.
8.	Inspection Bungalow, Hattikuni	II	Hattikuni, Yadgir taluk	Yadgir— Hattikuni Road.	7 miles from Yadgir Rly. station	Project site of Hattikuni.
9.	Inspection Bungalow, Nandepally.	II	Village Nandepally. Yadgir taluk	Roadside of Village Nandepally.	Narayanpet 11 miles.	4/3 of H-B. Road.
10.	Travellers' Bungalow, Shorapur.	II	Shorapur	I.B. road branching from K.L. Road.	33 miles from Yadgir.	Mile 21/0 to 21/1 of K.L. Road.
11.	Inspection Bungalow, Hathigudur.	II	Village Hathigudur, Taluk Shahapur.	185 feet from K-L Road Mile 11/2 to 21/2.	21 miles from Yadgir.	Mile 11/2 of K.L. Road.
12.	Travellers' Bungalow, Shahapur	II	Shahapur, Taluk Shahapur	By the side of Shahapur—Gulbarga Road.	28 miles from Yadgir Rly. station.	....
13.	Inspection Bungalow, Jevargi.	II	Jevargi, Taluk Jevargi.	On Gulbarga—Shahapur Road.	25 miles from Gulbarga.	No approach road.

H.B. Road=Hyderabad—Bijapur Road; S.B. Road=Saidapur Branch Road; M.M. Road=Mirakal—Minaspur Road; K.L. Road=Khanapur—Lingsugur Road.

Particulars of Dak Bungalows, etc., in Yadgir P.W.D. Division—(contd.)

Sl. No.	Name of the Bungalow	Facilities available like cook, utensils, furniture, water and light	Number of suites	Name of the places of interest near by and distance
		8	9	10
1.	Travellers' Bungalow, Yadgir.	All facilities ..	2	Shorapur—33 miles by road
2.	Inspection Bungalow, Yadgir.	do ..	2	do
3.	Inspection Bungalow, Gurmatkal.	No electricity; moderate furniture.	2	..
4.	Inspection Bungalow, Killenkera.	do ..	2	..
5.	Inspection Bungalow, Karni.	do ..	2	..
6.	Inspection Bungalow, Azlapur.	do ..	2	..
7.	Inspection Bungalow, Minaspur.	do ..	2	..
8.	Inspection Bungalow Hattikuni.	No electricity—All other facilities.	1	Hattikuni project just by the side of Inspection Bungalow
9.	Inspection Bungalow, Nandepally.	do ..	2	..
10.	Travellers' Bungalow, Shorapur.	All facilities ..	2	Taylor Manzil and Gopalaswami temple at Shorapur.
11.	Inspection Bungalow, Hattigudur.	No electricity; moderate furniture.	2	..
12.	Travellers' Bungalow, Shahapur	All facilities ..	2	Shorapur—33 miles
13.	Inspection Bungalow, Jevargi.	No electricity; moderate furniture. ..	2	Gulbarga—25 miles.

CHAPTER VIII

MISCELLANEOUS OCCUPATIONS

THE strength and stamina of the district's economy are being well built up at present by the series of Five-Year Plans which have come into operation in this country since 1951. The character and extent of every type of economic activity—agriculture, industry, commerce and finance—are determined or at least profoundly influenced by the structure of the plans. It will not be wrong if it is said that for the welfare of the district, the plans, which help greatly the economic and social progress, have become paramount. In the earlier chapters, an account of the district's major sectors of the economy, *viz.*, agriculture, industries, banking, trade and commerce, has been given and in this and the next chapter an attempt has been made to examine how far the plans have been helpful in promoting the economic well-being of the population. The district of Gulbarga being economically backward and having an agricultural economy with meagre industrialisation, is characterised by a low standard of living.

Livelihood Pattern

Gulbarga district is not dissimilar to other contiguous districts in its main occupational pattern, which is of course agricultural. From the perusal of census reports, it appears that the livelihood pattern of the district has been more or less constant from the last five or six decades. According to the 1951 census, out of the total population of 12,13,608, about 78 per cent or over 9 lakh persons were found to be dependent on agriculture. The census enumeration of the livelihood pattern was divided into eight classes with a broad division, *viz.*, agricultural and non-agricultural. The agricultural classes have been divided into four sub-divisions. They are cultivators of land wholly or mainly owned and their dependants, cultivators of land wholly or mainly un-owned and their dependants, cultivating labourers and their dependants, and non-cultivating owners of land, agricultural rent-receivers and their dependants. The non-agricultural classes have also been sub-divided into four categories. They are : those engaged in production other than cultivation, commerce, transport and other

services. The tables given below show the distribution of the livelihood classes in 1951, taluk-wise :—

Agricultural Population

Taluks	*Owner Cultivators*	*Tenant Cultivators*	*Cultivating labourers*	*Non-cultivating owners*	*Total Agricultural population*
Gulbarga ..	63,096	11,076	21,049	9,361	1,04,582
Chittapur ..	54,868	8,751	25,463	11,547	1,00,629
Yadgir ..	85,083	8,091	16,314	10,690	1,20,178
Shahapur ..	75,001	6,157	20,117	5,705	1,06,980
Shorapur ..	77,651	5,369	11,162	5,027	99,209
Jevargi ..	54,190	9,840	12,821	7,515	84,366
Afzalpur ..	37,267	9,822	14,775	5,198	67,062
Aland ..	67,175	11,783	26,213	8,364	1,13,535
Chincholi ..	43,294	8,897	21,355	7,664	81,210
Seram ..	38,309	7,203	15,175	5,427	66,114
Total ..	5,95,934	86,989	1,84,444	76,498	9,43,865

Non-Agricultural Population

Taluks	*Production other than cultivation*	*Commerce*	*Transport*	*Other Miscellaneous sources*	*Total non-agricultural population*
Gulbarga ..	28,321	16,685	4,936	31,922	81,864
Chittapur ..	28,989	5,863	5,419	10,158	44,429
Yadgir ..	18,279	7,518	2,229	11,626	39,652
Shahapur ..	8,070	3,112	179	5,489	16,850
Shorapur ..	11,899	4,133	298	8,015	24,345
Jevargi ..	3,059	862	14	2,913	6,848
Afzalpur ..	2,068	612	192	2,218	5,090
Aland .	11,587	2,926	163	6,313	20,989
Chincholi ..	9,697	2,897	111	5,212	11,917
Seram ..	7,835	2,805	628	5,606	16,874
Total ..	1,17,804	47,413	14,163	89,472	2,68,858

It is apparent from the perusal of the above figures that the district, being predominantly agricultural, the pressure on the land was enormous. As said earlier, about 78 per cent of the total population were engaged in agriculture ; 49.2 per cent of the total population were owner-cultivators, 7.2 per cent tenant cultivators, 15.2 per cent cultivating labourers and 6.2 per cent non-cultivating owners. So far as industries were concerned, persons engaged in them were 9.7 per cent to the total population of the district.

Persons engaged in commerce and transport constituted 3.9 and 1.2 per cent respectively. Other services and miscellaneous sources accounted for 7.4 per cent of the total population. From 1951 to 1961 there was an increase of 15.31 per cent in the population, the 1961 census having disclosed that the population of Gulbarga district was 13,99,457.

Workers and Non-workers

Though details of population according to livelihood category as disclosed by the 1961 census are not yet available (as the District Census Handbook is yet to be published), some statistics are published in the '1961 Census Report–Final Population Totals'. The 1961 census has broadly classified the population under two heads, *viz.*, workers and non-workers. The following table shows the total number of workers and non-workers in Gulbarga district as per 1961 census.

Category	*Men*	*Women*	*Total*
1. Workers ..	4,22,587	2,39,579	6,62,166
2. Non-workers .	2,80,860	4,56,431	7,37,291
Total ..	7,03,447	6,96,010	13,99,457

It is seen from the above that out of a total population of 13,99,457, more than 50 per cent are non-workers. The workers have been further classified under nine sub-heads as follows :—

Workers	*Men*	*Women*
(1) as cultivators	2,08,377	93,224
(2) as agricultural labourers . ..	84,433	90,623
(3) in mining, quarrying, livestock, forestry, fishing, hunting and plantations, orchards and allied activities . ..	2,911	1,112
(4) in household industry . ..	42,604	18,390
(5) in manufacturing other than household industry	11,265	2,851
(6) in construction	3,793	727
(7) in trade and commerce	18,377	3,458
(8) in transport, storage and communications	4,288	129
(9) in other services	46,539	29,056
Total ..	4,22,587	2,39,579

Another feature of these now available 1961 census figures is the classification into urban and rural population with workers

and non-workers and men and women break-ups as shown in the following table:

	Workers			Non-Workers		
Area	*Men*	*Women*	*Total*	*Men*	*Women*	*Total*
1. Rural ..	3,66,087	2,17,538	5,83,625	2,21,571	3,67,840	5,89,411
2. Urban ..	56,500	22,041	78,541	59,289	88,591	1,47,880
Total ..	4,22,587	2,39,579	6,62,166	2,80,860	4,56,431	7,37,291

The rural population of the district as per the 1961 census was 11,73,036 as against 9,34,361 in 1951. The urban population according to the 1961 census was 2,26,421 as against 2,17,675 in 1951 which meant an increase of only 8,746 as between 1951 and 1961. It has been worked out that the proportion of rural/urban population to 1000 total population in Gulbarga district as per 1961 census was 838 (Rural) and 162 (Urban) as against 820 (Rural) and 180 (Urban) in 1951. The population—both rural and urban—has been further sub-divided (in 1961 census) into nine categories as indicated below :—

Rural

Workers	*Men*	*Women*
(1) as cultivators	2,02,502	90,782
(2) as agricultural labourers	80,671	87,065
(3) in mining, quarrying, live-stock, forestry, fishing, hunting and plantation, orchards and allied activities	1,581	720
(4) in household industry	36,256	12,181
(5) in manufacturing other than household industry	2,673	345
(6) in construction	1,808	294
(7) in trade and commerce	8,495	2,134
(8) in transport, storage and communications	1,775	97
(9) in other services	30,326	23,920
Total ..	3,66,087	2,17,538

Urban

Workers	*Men*	*Women*
(1) as cultivators	5,875	2,442
(2) as agricultural labourers	3,762	3,567
(3) in mining, quarrying, live-stock, forestry, fishing, hunting and plantation, orchards and allied activities	1,330	392
(4) in household industry	6,348	6,209
(5) in manufacturing other than household industry	8,592	2,506
(6) in construction	1,985	433
(7) in trade and commerce	9,882	1,324
(8) in transport, storage and communications	2,513	32
(9) in other services	16,213	5,136
Total ..	56,500	22,041

Though agriculture, industries, trade and commerce, transport and communications are the major sectors of employment, there is still a small percentage of the population unaccounted for who find employment in other avenues classified under miscellaneous occupations. This percentage, though small, has an important bearing on society and the administration. During 1951, out of the total population in the district, 77.8 per cent were engaged in agriculture and the percentage of the total non-agricultural population was 22.2. Out of the total non-agricultural population, the percentage of population engaged in industries, trade and commerce and transport was 9.7, 3.9 and 1.2, respectively. The remaining percentage of the population, *i.e.*, 7.4 was engaged in other avocations grouped under miscellaneous occupations. The District Census Handbook of Gulbarga, 1951, did not contain much details of these minor occupations and it had only given a broad outline of the livelihood classes and sub-classes coming under miscellaneous sources. The table below indicates tract-wise statistics of men and women, who were self-supporting or earning dependants or non-earning dependants.

Livelihood classes and sub-classes coming under miscellaneous sources (1951 Census):

Sl. No.	Tract	*Other services and miscellaneous sources*							
		Self-supporting persons		*Earning dependants*		*Non-earning dependants*		*Total*	
		Men	*Women*	*Men*	*Women*	*Men*	*Women*	*Men*	*Women*
1.	Gulbarga ..	1,034	181	239	312	783	1,369	2,066	1,862
2.	Chittapur ..	1,150	202	276	472	674	1,203	2,100	1,877
3.	Yadgir ..	1,200	401	236	336	843	1,525	2,279	2,262
4.	Shahapur and Shorapur taluks.	1,550	437	396	331	1,029	1,755	2,975	2,523
5.	Jevargi ..	846	157	111	153	569	1,077	1,526	1,387
6.	Afzalpur ..	543	72	91	126	323	565	957	763
7.	Aland ..	945	128	291	296	666	1,443	1,902	1,567
8.	Chincholi ..	906	121	150	213	584	908	1,610	1,242
9.	Seram ..	974	172	197	314	665	1,146	1,836	1,632
10.	Gulbarga town	6,075	969	937	611	7,710	11,692	14,722	13,272

Public Administration service

Gulbarga town has always had its importance in the field of administration. Even when it was part of the Nizam's Dominions, it was the headquarters of a Suba. Hence, there had been all along a concentration of Government officials in Gulbarga town. To-day, Gulbarga being the headquarters of a Division as also of the district, it continues to have a large number of Government servants who hail from the different parts of the district and the State. Next in importance to Gulbarga town is Yadgir, which is now a sub-divisional headquarters. Taluk headquarters towns also account for an appreciable number of Government servants.

The importance of correct statistics of Government employment, especially in the context of planning, can hardly be emphasised. Realising this, the first joint conference of Central and State Statisticians held in 1951 recommended that a continuous series of figures should be made available through periodic collection, regularly once a year. In Mysore, statistics relating to certain aspects of Government employees were being collected by the Public Service Commission and the Government in the General Administration Department. But these statistics were of limited scope and were not comprehensive. As such, Government decided that a comprehensive census of Government employees and posts should be undertaken. The State Directorate of Statistics is conducting annual surveys; figures from reports of the surveys of 1960 and 1962 and published in 1962 and 1964 respectively, are given below. They contain, among other things, the distribution of Government employees as on 31st March 1960 and 31st March 1962, working in the district by category of appointment and the distribution of Government employees as on that date according to their native district, *viz.*, Gulbarga.

TABLE 1

The following table indicates the distribution of Government employees as on 31st March 1960 by category of appointment in Gulbarga district :—

	Class I	Class II	Class III	Class IV	All
Gulbarga City ..	37	68	1,778	658	2,541
Gulbarga district (excluding city) ..	11	34	3,986	1,002	5,033
Total ..	48	102	5,764	1,660	7,574

TABLE 2

The following statement shows the distribution of Government employees as on 31st March 1962 in the district of Gulbarga by category of appointment :—

	Class I	Class II	Class III	Class IV	All
Gulbarga City ..	32	75	2,589	848	3,544
Gulbarga district (excluding city) ..	14	41	4,380	431	4,866
Total .	46	116	6,969	1,279	8,410

It can be seen from the above tables that the total number of Government employees in the district which was 7,574 in 1960 increased to 8,410 in 1962, an increase of 836 employees. Of the total number of 7,574 employees in 1960, 6,361 of them belonged to their district of birth, *i.e.*, Gulbarga, while the corresponding figure for 1962 was 7,288. According to the 1963 census of Government employees, there were 9,958 Government servants in the district, registering an increase of 1,548 over 1962 figures.

In addition to these employed in the service of the Government, there are a few who are employees of local bodies like municipalities. The total number of employees coming under this category was over 350.

Learned Professions

The teaching profession forms one of the most important of the learned professions. It had been gathered that in 1961-62, the total number of teachers employed was 3238, of whom 2466 were teachers of primary, middle and basic schools. The number of

teachers in the high schools was 772. The total number of women teachers in the district was 248. In 1964-65, the total number of teachers of all these categories in the district had risen to 4,308. The next important occupation is the medical profession. It was gathered that in 1961 the total number of doctors (allopathic and others) in the district was 265. The number of lawyers in the district has been continually on the increase and during 1961, the number of legal practitioners in the district was 170.

Domestic and Personal Services

A considerable number of people are engaged in domestic service. Most of the middle class and almost all the upper-class families employ domestic servants. Their wage rates are less attractive when compared to other occupations, but this is because many of them are given food in addition to their wages. The hereditary barbers are found all over the district. Urban places of the district contain some saloons where some workers are also employed. The hereditary washermen of the district are found both in villages and towns, as their services are essential for the people of the urban and rural areas alike. Laundries are a common feature in the urban areas of the district. The owners of the laundries engage washermen for washing and ironing clothes on payment basis. Usually the womenfolk of the washermen community do much of the washing and the ironing is done by men.

Employment in Shops and Establishments

The Mysore Shops and Commercial Establishments Act of 1961 is in force in three towns of the district, namely, Gulbarga, Yadgir and Shahabad. The Weekly Holidays Act is in force in nine towns, namely, Gulbarga, Yadgir, Shahabad, Seram, Chittapur, Shorapur, Shahapur, Chincholi and Aland.

As on 1st December 1965, there were 3,253 shops and establishments in the three towns of Gulbarga, Yadgir and Shahapur. A total number of 2,837 persons were in employment in these establishments.

CHAPTER IX

ECONOMIC TRENDS

THE various factors which help to strengthen the economic balance of the district are dealt with in this chapter. It is pertinent to note that in any discussion of the economic development of an area or a tract, the agronomic prospects, together with the industrial potentialities have to be looked into. An attempt has been made here to discuss the price trends from the last decade of the last century upto the present times. The district of Gulbarga was not an exception to the general inflationary tendency noticed in other parts of India and this aspect has been duly dwelt upon. The economic prosperity of any area depends on agriculture, industry, commerce, trade and the like. Bearing these important factors in mind, the various economic trends of the district have been discussed.

Price Movements

In a district like Gulbarga where the mainstay of the economy is agriculture, the importance of understanding the price movements of staple agricultural commodities is obvious. Prices* not only indicate the movements taking place within the economy of a district, but also show their effect on the whole economy for good or bad. A change in the prices of agricultural staples affects the purchasing power of the agriculturist, which in turn produces its effects on the entire economy, as the country is predominantly dependent on agriculture. Price changes affect the wage-level and the question whether they represent increasing prosperity or *vice versa* has always been a subject of contention. In examining the price movements of some of the important agricultural commodities, it will be convenient to divide the study into distinct periods, each marked by some important event. Thus, the study of price trends in the district of Gulbarga, as elsewhere, can easily be divided into the following periods :

1. From 1890 to 1914
2. From the Great War to the Great Depression

* Price trends are discussed from 1890 to 1964 with the help of index numbers of agricultural prices, and tables showing actual prices are appended to this chapter (Tables I to X.)

3. The Great Depression and the Recovery
4. The Second World War and after.

The characteristic phenomenon of the period from 1890 to 1914 is violent fluctuation in the prices due to the changing agricultural conditions. In 1913, the Government of India appointed the "Prices Enquiry Committee" to investigate the causes of rising prices. The period of enquiry related to the years 1890 to 1912. During 1890-1912, there was a general rise in prices throughout India and this was specially marked after 1905. The Prices Enquiry Committee divided the causes into two classes, *viz.*, (a) causes confined only to India, (b) causes which forced an upward trend in the prices all over the world, *i.e.*, world factors. But in the opinion of the committee, a distinct line of demarcation could not be drawn between the two sets of causes, because one was reacting on the other.

Causes peculiar to India.—According to the Committee, the main causes disclosed were :—

(i) Shortage in supply of agricultural products, and chiefly of foodgrains, due to the growth of cultivation not keeping pace with the growth of population and the substitution of non-food crops for food crops.

(ii) Increase in demand for these commodities.

(iii) Development of railways and other communications which brought down the direct and indirect costs of transport.

(iv) Increase in the volume of the circulating medium.

World Factors.—

(i) Shortage in the supply of and increase in the demand for agricultural products.

(ii) Increased gold supply.

(iii) Destructive wars and heavy expenditure on the army.

(iv) Diversion of capital and labour into unproductive channels.

In the light of the above analysis, an attempt may be made to study the price trends in Gulbarga district.

Prices during 1890-1913

Unfortunately, it is only from 1890 that price statistics are available for the district of Gulbarga. These statistics have been mainly obtained from such secondary sources as weekly returns published in the Hyderabad Government Gazette or the

Jaridai A'lamia. The following table illustrates the general trends of prices in Gulbarga district from 1890 to 1913 :—

INDEX OF AGRICULTURAL PRICES

1890–1913

Base for index : 1890=100

Year		*Rice*	*Wheat*	*Jowar*
1890	..	100	100	100
1891	..	..	..	..
1892	..	95	106	150
1893	..	83	97	169
1894	..	.	..	..
1895		..	..	..
1896	..	141	171	219
1897	..	120	150	193
1898	..	85	109	103
1899	..	135	180	246
1900	..	130	171	184
1901	..	118	157	133
1902	..	101	116	83
1903	..	83	75	71
1904	.	90	80	101
1905	..	125	116	153
1906	..	116	129	135
1907	.	141	180	184
1908	..	135	164	169
1909	.	120	144	162
1910	..	125	129	150
1911	..	147	150	176
1912	..	162	164	193
1913	..	162	164	184

The above table not only shows a state of frequent fluctuations in prices, but also indicates that the prices were generally falling between 1890 and 1903, except sudden spurts in some years. Afterwards, prices began to rise till the outbreak of the First World War. Except for a sudden jump in the prices of foodstuffs between 1896 and 1900, owing to the famines in 1896 and 1899, prices were generally falling from 1890 to 1903. Thus, the index number of rice which stood at 100 in 1890 fell to 83 in 1893 and then in 1896 rose to 141, and then gradually came down to 83 in 1903. The index of wheat was 100 in 1890, fell to 97 in 1893, then went up to 180 in 1899 due to famine conditions and again came down to 75 in 1903. But in the case of jowar, price fluctuations were wider due to a succession of failures of jowar crops and the consequent scarcity conditions. Thus, the index number of jowar which stood at 100 in 1890 was 150 in 1892, 219 in 1896 and 246 in 1899. The quinquennium, 1896-1900, was a period of acute scarcity as it contained two famine years, 1896 and 1899. Consequently, the prices of jowar experienced a sharp rise and the

index reached the mark of 219 in 1896 and 246 in 1899. Thereafter there was a fall and the index came down to 71 in 1903.

From 1904, the price level showed a general upward tendency. The world factors affecting prices came into prominence during this period. Thus, the index number of rice moved up from 83 in 1903 to 90 in 1904 and then gradually to 141 in 1907. In the following quinquennium, the index, after a temporary decline in 1908-1910 due to a slight trade depression, continued its upward movement and stood at 162 at the outbreak of the First World War. The index of wheat which stood at 80 in 1904 went up to 160 in 1907, declined to 129 in 1910 and then moved up to 164 by 1913. The index number of jowar went up from 71 in 1903 to 184 in 1907 and in 1910, it fell to 150 and again rose to 184 by 1913.

Prices during 1914—1929

Before the outbreak of the war of 1914-1918, prices were generally rising and the war only added momentum to this tendency and spurred the prices to an unprecedented degree, especially from 1918 to 1921. This was a period in which forces other than local continued to influence the price trends in Gulbarga district. The rise in prices in this district and elsewhere in India was smaller than in countries directly engaged in war. The following table shows the movements of prices in the district during 1914-1929 :—

INDEX OF AGRICULTURAL PRICES

1914–1929

Base for index : 1914=100

Year	*Rice*	*Wheat*	*Jowar*
1914 ..	100	100	100
1915 ..	78	100	90
1916 ..	81	84	95
1917 ..	95	89	100
1918 ..	122	131	179
1919 ..	175	191	216
1920 ..	170	188	179
1921 ..	206	223	260
1922 ..	181	247	180
1923 ..	178	202	185
1924 ..	175	188	139
1925 ..	181	171	145
1926 ..	169	175	130
1927 ..	181	180	145
1928 ..	180	180	147
1929 ..	157	155	136

The price of rice went up from 100 in 1914 to 122 in 1918, to 175 in 1919 and finally in 1921 moved up to 206. In the case of wheat the index went up to 131 in 1918, 191 in 1919 and to 247 in

1922. The greatest rise was in the price of jowar. The index advanced to 179 in 1918, to 216 in 1919 and to the high figure of 260 in 1921.

Thus, during the early post-war period, prices of the most important foodstuffs were more than doubled, when compared to the prices at the outbreak of the war. Two severe famines in 1919 and 1920 aggravated the situation. Hence, the prices reached the topmost pitch in the above-mentioned years.

To arrest this upward tendency, a serious attempt was made in Hyderabad State, of which Gulbarga district was a part, by passing the law regulating civil supplies. The law which was passed towards the middle of 1918 prohibited the export of food-grains outside the State (ex-Hyderabad State) except under a licence. In ordinary years, this measure of legislation, whatever its other economic consequences, might have had a beneficial effect on the course of prices inasmuch as the total production of foodgrains in this part of the area in a normal year is decidedly more than the total consumption. But unfortunately, a succession of bad years set in, in which owing to partial and in some cases total failure of monsoon, famine conditions prevailed. To aggravate matters, some of the adjoining provinces in turn prohibited exports from their territory into Hyderabad State. Others allowed restricted exports and that too very reluctantly. Thus the beneficial effects contemplated by the enacting of the law of civil supplies were counteracted in a great measure by circumstances beyond human control. The boom conditions in the early post-war years kept the prices steady. But soon this phase passed away, slump set in the market and prices began to decline. It must be noted that this decline was gradual and not so very steep as in the early thirties of the century. Thus, the index of rice went down from 206 in 1922 to 175 in 1924 and 180 in 1928. Similarly, the index of wheat came down from 247 in 1922 to 180 in 1928. Above all, the decline in the price of jowar was remarkable as the index came down from 260 in 1921 to 130 in 1926, *i.e.*, a decline of about 50 per cent. It may be mentioned here that in spite of the general fall in prices in the middle of the thirties, prices in general remained 50 to 7[illegible] per cent higher than the pre-war level (1914).

Prices during 1929–1939

The ten-year period between 1929 and 1939 is important in the history of price fluctuations all over the world as it was a period of depression. This period witnessed a price debacle which adversely affected the agricultural class of the district. The effects of that depression were not confined to any one continent, any one industry, or group of industries, or any one trade as such. It involved almost all the countries of the civilised world. Throughout a period of five years, 1929-1934, almost all the agricultural countries had to face this calamity and their condition

in many respects—*e.g.*, the fall of prices, the dimunition in the value of trade, the maladjustment of costs and prices and the increase in the burden of contractual obligations—was far worse than that of industrial countries. The fall in prices in India could not but affect the prices in Hyderabad of which Gulbarga was a part, as it is closely linked up with other parts of India by economic and commercial relations.

Prices began to fall in Gulbarga district more or less in the same manner as in other parts. The table below indicates the index numbers of wholesale prices of certain important commodities in Gulbarga district for the period under review :—

1928—1934

Base for index : 1921-22=100

Year		*Rice*	*Wheat*	*Jowar*	*All commodities*
1928-29	..	87	62	75	77
1929-30	..	81	59	73	75
1930-31	..	75	48	45	59.5
1931-32	..	50	37	43	50.5
1932-33	..	50	37	43	50.7
1933-34	..	48	36	43	47

The table above indicates that the index of wholesale prices fell from 77 in 1928-29 to 47 in 1933-34—a fall of 39 per cent. The table also shows that this tendency became acute and continuous from 1930-31 when the price fell from 75 in 1929-30 to 59.5 in 1930-31. Thus, there was a setback of 20 per cent in one year. The tendency of a fall in prices continued even after that. In 1931-32, the index was at 50.5 which showed a fall of 35 per cent as compared to 1928-29. Conditions were more or less depressed to the same extent in 1932-33, but prices showed a steeper fall in 1933-34 when, as has been stated above, the index came down to 47. This price decline adversely affected the agricultural class of the district as also of trade and industry. By the middle of 1933-34, the worst period of the depression was over. By the end of 1933-34, the situation slightly improved and signs of recovery, though partial, were visible. The district of Gulbarga too responded to these world-wide trends and in 1934-35 and 1935-36, the process of recovery was pronounced. There was a definite acceleration in this process from October 1936 to October 1937. But from the beginning of October 1937, again a period of setback commenced.

The following table indicates the progress of recovery from the depths of depression :—

Price Index of certain important agricultural commodities during the period of recovery, 1933—1938.

Base for Index: 1921=100

Year	*Rice*	*Wheat*	*Jowar*	*All commodities*
1933–34	48	36	43	47
1934–35	55	34	54	53
1935–36	54	33	49	53
1936–37	56	44	53	58
1937–38	58	44	51	56

The table shows that the index for the prices of all commodities rose from 47 in 1933-34 to 58 in 1936-37 or an increase of 23.4 per cent. Taking the commodities individually, we find that the price of rice did not go up very much. The index rose to 56 in 1936-37 showing a rise of only 16.6 per cent from the worst period of depression. This, it may be noted, was still 35.6 per cent less than the pre-depression level. The case of wheat affords yet another example of the distress of the peasant. Wheat did not recover, as some other commodities did, from 1933-34 onwards. In fact, the process of deterioration continued for further two years when the index fell to 33 in 1935-36 from 36 in 1933-34. It was only in 1936-37 that the tide was turned in the case of wheat, the figure rising to 44 after a painful process of deterioration during the previous seven years. The fall in the wheat prices in Gulbarga was in accordance with the general universal slump in the price of wheat during this period. As for the price of jowar, there was a recovery of 25 per cent on the price prevailing during the depth of the depression though it was 30 per cent less than the pre-depression level.

Prices during 1939-1944

The outbreak of the Second World War in September 1939 may be said to have been the signal for a general rise in prices of almost all commodities, and in the succeeding years prices touched heights unheard of before. The initial rise in prices was due to 'panic' among both the traders and consumers, the former trying to make hay while the sun shone and the latter trying to hoard all that they could get at the moment. But with the progress of the war, all-India influences such as real shortage of food-grains and inflation, and various other circumstances began to operate

and consequently the prices jumped to phenomenal heights. The following table shows the rise in prices during the period :—

Wholesale commodity prices 1939—44

Base for Index: 1914=100

Year.	*Rice*	*Wheat*	*Jowar*
1939	103	101	108
1940	121	113	116
1941	125	112	99
1942	150	137	116
1943	220	258	217
1944	223	272	234

The rise in the price of rice had been uniform and steady in the first three years of the war and galloping in the next two years. The index went up from 103 in 1939 to 125 in 1941 and 150 in 1942, whereas the same in 1943 was 220 and in 1944, 223. Thus the price of rice at the beginning of the Second World War was almost at the level as at the outbreak of the First World War, but whereas in the fourth year of the First War, the prices had gone up only by about 25 per cent, in the fourth year of the Second World War, it was 116 per cent more than in 1939. The price of wheat showed even greater rise than the price of rice during the Second War. Thus, the index went up from 101 in 1939 to 137 in 1942 and 272 in 1944, whereas the highest increase in the price of wheat during the First War was 31 per cent only. It may also be noted here that the price of wheat in 1944 was more than thrice the price in 1936, the lowest price of wheat during the Depression. In the case of jowar too, as in the case of rice and wheat, prices did not rise so high in the first three years of the war as in the last two years. Thus, the index of jowar was not more than 116 before 1942. But by 1944, it had gone upto 234 or a rise of 216 per cent since the outbreak of the war. This was almost double the price level at the dawn of the century, 30 per cent above the highest price attained during the last war (1918), 72 per cent more than the price on the eve of the Depression (1929) and thrice the price at the worst period of the Depression, *i.e.*, 1934.

Price Control

As soon as the war began, it was realised that price control would be a vital part of national defence. The Government decided to set up a committee to control the prices and movements of essential commodities. There was a

central price control committee at Hyderabad and a local price control committee in each district which tried to secure mutual understanding and co-operation between the trade interests and the price control organisations. The State Government kept in close touch with developments in other parts of India. The loss of supplies of rice from Burma, the shortage of rolling stock on the railways, the inflation of the currency, the smuggling of foodgrains across the border and the exploitation of the war conditions by profiteering producers and tradesmen—all contributed to the spiral in prices of foodgrains. The failure of crops in 1941-42 and 1942-43 in some of the taluks of Gulbarga and the difficulty of movement of grains from other districts to this deficit area made the problem a difficult one. The daily worsening of the food situation compelled the Government to enforce the Foodgrains Control Order and units of the State army were sent to patrol the borders in order to put a stop to illicit trade. The Government also felt it necessary to create buffer stocks of foodgrains and for this purpose, the Foodgrains Collective Levy Order was promulgated and the Government entered the market as the direct purchaser. A vast network of purchasing agencies was spread covering practically every village. Statutory ceiling prices were fixed in October 1943. The consideration that was kept in view was that, while the producer should get a fair return in keeping with the increased cost of production and the high prices of other necessities of life, foodgrains should not be beyond the purchasing capacity of the average consumer both in rural and urban areas.

Prices from 1945 onwards

The price of rice (as per statutory ceilings) was Rs. 8-12-0 per Bengal maund, and the price of jowar was Rs. 5-7-0 per Bengal maund. These were calculated as 125 per cent higher than the pre-war prices and ten to twenty per cent lower than the prices prevailing immediately before the Notification was issued. The price ceilings fixed by Government gave rise to much discontent among cultivators and the Government, therefore, in consultation with the Food Advisory Committee, decided to raise the statutory ceiling prices. The price of jowar was raised to Rs. 21 and that of rice to Rs. 32 per palla of three maunds (1945). In 1952, the Government promulgated the Foodgrains (Licensing and Procurement) Order under which the dealers in foodgrains were to get licences. The war and its after-effects of inflation brought about a steady and steep rise in the general level of prices. The upward movement of prices continued during the decade from 1951 to 1960 also. In this period, the factors responsible for the rise in prices were the conditions created by the developmental activities initiated during the First and Second Five-Year Plans. The prices of essential commodities like rice, wheat and jowar increased rapidly. The following table shows

the index numbers of wholesale prices of agricultural commodities from 1950-51 to 1955-56:—

Base for Index : 1949-50=100

Year		Rice	Wheat	Jowar
1950-51	..	100	97	103
1951-52	..	106	96	104
1952-53	..	119	144	122
1953-54	..	125	156	143
1954-55	..	141	109	127
1955-56	..	151	100	129

The following statement shows the index numbers of wholesale prices of agricultural commodities during 1960 and 1961 :*

Base for Index 1952—1953=100

Year		Rice	Wheat	Jowar
Annual Average 1960	..	96	139	122
January 1961	..	89	128	103
February 1961	..	91	125	95
March 1961	..	93	119	92

During the post-war period and during the 1950's, there was inflation all-round. Besides, other factors like growth of population, short-fall in production, ruling prices of gold and silver and the export and import policy—all these influenced the price movements. Between 1950-51 and 1955-56, the prices were rising but during 1960-61, the price level was almost steady. During 1961-62, there was again a rise in prices of essential commodities. The price level was more or less the same with slight variations here and there, during the subsequent two years, *viz.*, 1962-63 and 1963-64. But there was a further sharp rise in prices in 1964-65 touching, perhaps, an all-time new high, in that the prices of foodgrains like wheat (bansi) and jowar (argadi) almost doubled themselves, as could be seen from the following statement :—

Statement showing the year-wise modal prices per quintal of foodgrains in Gulbarga district from 1960-61 to 1964-65 :—

Name of the Commodities		1960-61		1961-62		1962-63		1963-64		1964-65	
		Rs.	nP.	Rs.	nP.	Rs.	nP.	Rs.	nP.	Rs.	nP.
Rice (fine)	.. ..	74	00	82	00	65	00	75	00	84	00
Rice (coarse)	.. ..	61	00	58	00	50	00	58	00	70	00
Wheat (bansi)	.. ..	56	00	58	00	55	00	55	00	103	00
Jowar (white)	.. ..	38	00	41	00	40	00	42	00	69	00
Jowar (argadi)	.. ..	33	00	35	00	36	00	36	00	68	00

* Index numbers for Gulbarga Centre are not available for this period. Hence, index numbers of adjoining district, *viz.*, Bijapur, are adopted.

From the above, it can be seen that a quintal of wheat (bansi), which used to cost Rs. 55 in 1963-64, rose up to Rs. 103 in 1964-65. Similarly, the price of a quintal of jowar (argadi) which was Rs. 36 in 1963-64, increased to Rs. 68 in 1964-65. There were similar rises in the prices of other foodgrains also. In the retail market, a kilogram of fine rice was sold at Re. 0.94 (June 1964) during the year, while the prices of wheat (bansi) and jowar (white) were Rs. 1.31 and Re. 0.94 per kilogram (December 1964) respectively. The following table indicates the month-wise retail prices of foodgrains in Gulbarga district in 1964-65 :

Months and Year	*Rate per one kilogram*									
	*Rice *fine*		*Rice coarse*		*Wheat bansi*		*Jowar white*		*Jowar argadi*	
1	2		3		4		5		6	
	Rs	nP.	Rs.	nP.	Rs.	nP.	Rs.	nP.	Rs.	nP
April 1964	0	94	0	70	0	75	0	55	0	50
May 1964	0	88	0	70	0	90	0	62	0	55
June 1964	0	94	0	75	0	90	0	56	0	50
July 1964	0	92	0	75	0	94	0	71	0	60
August 1964	0	90	0	75	1	12	0	81	0	62
September 1964	0	88	0	75	1	15	0	90	0	75
October 1964	0	88	0	75	1	25	0	80	0	62
November 1964	0	88	0	75	1	25	0	87	0	75
December 1964	0	88	0	75	1	31	0	94	0	81
January 1965	0	88	0	75	1	00	0	81	0	75
February 1965	0	88	0	75	0	95	0	81	0	75
March 1965	0	88	0	75	0	87	0	62	0	55

In this abnormal situation, the policy of the Government was to mop up the excess purchasing power which tended to push up demands above the level of available supplies. The taxation principles adopted in the socialistic pattern aim at keeping down consumption to the limits provided in the plan. The fiscal policy of the State had to put a check on the creation of an excess purchasing power and the monetary policy had to regulate the credit formation through institutional endeavour. There was also need to have some sort of control by which reasonable price could be fixed, not only to help the producer but also the consumer. The general failure of monsoon on the one hand and the rapidly growing population on the other, had aggravated the situation and there was shortage of foodgrains in the State as elsewhere in the country. The Government, who were alive to these problems, issued a series of orders from time to time, all aimed at tiding over the food shortage in the State, by regulating the wholesale and retail sale of foodgrains, fixing the selling and purchasing prices of food articles, requiring the foodgrains dealers to declare their stocks periodically, controlling the movement and export of foodgrains, arranging for the procurement (levy) of foodgrains from the growers, mills, etc.

Wages

All these measures helped, to a great extent, to check the further rise in prices and also in tiding over the difficult food situation in the State.

The wage level has undergone somewhat similar fluctuations as the price level. The information given here is based on the material contained in the statistical abstracts and the year books published by the Government of Hyderabad, statistical abstracts of the Government of Mysore and local investigations. In the early days, wages, especially in the agricultural sector, were determined by custom and tradition. The agricultural labourers were generally paid in kind. The wages for the artisans were paid in cash. The example of the artisans tempted the agricultural labourers gradually to put forth demands for payment of wages in cash and this was acceded to by the land-owners. Tables relating to urban wages in Gulbarga district in 1935, 1940 and between 1941-45 are given at the end of the Chapter (Tables 11 and 12).

The rates of wages have recently increased in the district owing to the general rise in the cost of living. The following are the figures of daily wages in Gulbarga district of skilled as well as field labour during 1961 :—

Year and Month	Skilled Labour			Field Labour		
	Carpenter	*Blacksmith*	*Cobbler*	*Men*	*Women*	*Children*
	Rs. nP.	Rs. nP.	Rs. nP.	Rs. nP.	Rs. nP.	Rs. nP.
January 1961	2—68	2—53	2—15	1—20	0—71	0—47
February 1961	2—69	2—83	2—18	1—28	0—77	0—50
March 1961	2—73	2—58	2—23	1—23	0—74	0—48

SURVEY OF SOCIO-ECONOMIC CONDITIONS

The economic development of a district is determined by the main occupations of the people. These occupations are closely inter-related to the natural potentialities that are available in the district or region. The existence of raw materials and the skill and talents of the people go to build up the economic prosperity of that particular area. The character and prosperity of the district's economy are determined by the progress achieved in the prominent economic sectors, *viz.*, agriculture, industry, commerce or trade. In the modern era, when the emphasis is on economic growth through a series of plans, several new factors are also taken into account in the determination of the economic potential of a region. The accumulated savings, the credit available for starting new enterprises and the institutional advantages are the more important among these factors.

Natural Resources

Natural resources indicate the inherent wealth of a district. This wealth, when properly harnessed by the people, can become the key factor in the process of economic development. Gulbarga district, by and large, offers possibilities for economic growth by virtue of its natural resources. Two important rivers, Krishna and Bhima, flow through the district and the former forms the boundary between Raichur and Gulbarga districts. There are two main tributaries of the Bhima in the district, *viz.*, Kagna and Amerja. These rivers have not so far been harnessed and their water used for irrigation purposes. From time immemorial, the district has offered scope for the development of several small-scale industries and ever since independence, the Government has made sustained efforts to give varied incentives to industry. Limestone, the raw material required for the cement industry, is not only available in plenty in the vicinity of Shahabad, but deposits are also found in Shorapur taluk of the district. The cement factory at Shahabad, started in 1925 to utilise the limestone available nearby, is the earliest large-scale industry, save the M.S.K. Mills started in 1883. It was also the first cement factory to be established in the Nizam's Dominions. There are rich deposits of red ochre in Jevargi and Shorapur taluks, feldspar for ceramic use scattered in different parts of Shorapur and Yadgir taluks, potters' clay near the village Tirtha in Shorapur taluk, which is a good material for the manufacture of bricks, tiles and pottery and Fuller's earth at Korvi, a village about 13 miles to the north-west of Chincholi, for bleaching vegetable and mineral oils. Thus, the district is endowed with inherent natural potentialities needed for the fast economic growth of the area.

Human Resources

The human material available in the district also counts for economic progress. The population of the district which was 8,82,042 in 1901, increased to 13,99,457 by 1961. The following table indicates the growth of population during the last six decades :

Year		*Population*
1901	..	8.83,062
1911	..	9,64,468
1921	..	8,87,875
1931	..	9,90,505
1941	..	10,59,716
1951	..	12,13,608
1961	..	13,99,457

Urbanisation

The process of urbanisation is another factor, the impact of which is seen in the extent of economic growth. The number of towns in the district is ten. Out of the total population of 12,13,608 in 1951, only 2,17,675 lived in towns, which worked out to 18 per cent of the total population. The urban population of the district in 1961 was 2,26,421 out of a population of 13,99,457. The table

below indicates the taluk-wise rural and urban population of the district in 1961 :—

Taluk			*Rural*	*Urban*	*Total*
Afzalpur	..	..	90,071	..	90,071
Aland	..	..	1,42,326	18,009	1,60,335
Chincholi	..	..	1,01,716	6,047	1,07,763
Chittapur	.	..	1,42,948	31,828	1,74,776
Gulbarga	..	..	1,31,704	97,069	2,28,773
Jevargi	.	..	1,11,212	.	1,11,212
Seram	..	..	82,162	8,527	90,089
Shahapur	..	..	1,26,325	11,776	1,38,101
Shorapur	..	..	1,19,895	17,689	1,37,584
Yadgir	..	..	1,24,677	35,476	1,60,153

The following statement relates to the urban population of the district town-wise and according to sex as per 1961 census :

Town		*Males*	*Females*	*Total*
Gulbarga	..	51,019	46,050	97,069
Yadgir	..	12,865	12,899	25,764
Shahabad	..	10,302	10,152	20,454
Aland	..	9,065	8,944	18,009
Shorapur	..	8,686	9,003	17,689
Shahapur	..	5,823	5,953	11,776
Chittapur	..	5,802	5,572	11,374
Gurmatkal	..	4,811	4,901	9,712
Seram	..	4,345	4,182	8,527
Chincholi	..	3,071	2,976	6,047

The district is predominantly agricultural in character and the major portion of the population of the district, therefore, lives in villages. The process of urbanisation has been very slow in the district and the increase in the urban population of the district was only by 8,746 as between 1951 and 1961. Though there is an increase in the total urban population of the district, there is an actual decline in the percentage of the urban population to the total population of the district.

Cultivated area and main crops.

The whole agricultural economy of the district rests on farm produce, which in the case of Gulbarga consists mainly of jowar crop. Out of the total land area of 39,29,947 acres, the cropped area alone came to 31,29,243 acres, out of which 15,45,353 acres were sown with jowar, both *kharif* and *rabi*, in 1962-63. Nearly half of the cropped area was sown with rabi jowar. The estimate of yield from modern farming methods of jowar has a bearing on the agricultural economy. The average yield per acre was about

500 lbs including both the rabi and kharif varieties. From a rough calculation, the jowar yield in the entire district was about 1,85,670 tons. Jowar is not only consumed in the district but is also exported outside in normal years. The rich black cotton soil of the area facilitates the cultivation of cotton, groundnut, bajra, wheat and gram. The main crops which occupy a large acreage * are groundnut (2,04,482 acres), cotton (1,81,111 acres), bajra (2,51,501 acres), wheat (57,811 acres), rabi jowar (13,17,964 acres), and rice (58,990 acres). Though the district has two big rivers, the Krishna and the Bhima, the irrigational potential has yet to be tapped. The Upper Krishna Project and the Hattikuni Project are included in the plan programme and when these materialise, the agricultural economy of the district will have a brighter outlook. Irrigation at present is through wells and tanks, well irrigation alone commanding an area of 21,321 acres. The command area of all the tanks is 16,271 acres. Only in Chittapur and Seram taluks there is some small irrigation through Government canals.

The cultivators are slowly taking to modern methods, though in this sphere much persuasion and propaganda have become necessary. In 1962-63, there were 92,488 acres of cultivable waste land, which is being gradually put to agricultural use now. The use of tractors in the district has given a new shape to farming practices. Several methods have been pursued to improve the quality of the soil and thereby getting more out of the land. The soils in this area have a strong tendency to develop alkalinity. It is estimated that 73 per cent of the soil is alkaline. The salt content is normally low and reaches harmful concentrations only in about six per cent of the soils. Reclamation to a certain extent is being done to arrest the increase of alkalinity. A large area can be brought under the Krishna irrigation scheme, when rice and sugarcane can be grown in plenty.

Agricultural Holdings

The statistics of agricultural holdings in the district indicate that a large portion of these is uneconomic. There were only ten persons in the district who owned more than 1,000 acres. The number of persons owning more than 500 acres but not more than 1,000 acres was 37. The distribution of land-holdings in Gulbarga district according to extent owned is given in Chapter IV.

Occupational Pattern

Agriculture being the mainstay of the district, the occupational pattern naturally allows of small-scale industries like oil mills, cotton-ginning and handloom industry. As regards large industries, there is a solitary textile mill—the M.S.K. Mills—in the district headquarters town. The cement factory at Shahabad is another large industry in the district. The oil-seeds which are produced on a large scale are being converted into vegetable oils. In addition to these industries, there are others like soap manufacture, wire-nail industry, beedi manufacture and plastic industries.

*Figures relate to the year 1963-64.

The industrial prosperity of the district will increase with the availability of power from Tungabhadra and Sharavathi.

Trade

Trade and commerce are mainly carried on in towns and to a lesser extent in villages which have a large population. The trade is both wholesale and retail and is largely handled by the mercantile classes which are concentrated in urban areas. The changes from the old traditional method of weekly shandies to one of organised pattern are of particular interest. There is a swing towards better organisation in trade after the advent of regulated markets which are now nine in number. These markets, set up on a scientific basis, assure a fair price to the producers. The retail establishments in towns cater to the needs of the consuming public and their stores are well stocked with goods. Small shops exist even in villages. These, together with weekly shandies in some taluk headquarters, turn over a large amount of trade.

Finance

Some developments in finance have been apparent in the district over the decades. In the old days, there were no institutional financing agencies supplying credit to those who needed it. There were of course the traditional money-lenders who advanced loans to agriculturists and rural craftsmen. The district had large jagirs owned by wealthy persons. These jagirdars had enough surplus money to lend and they were giving it on usurious rates of interest. Avenues of investment were not much in evidence. Institutional banking came into existence with the establishment of the District Co-operative Central Bank in 1917. This was the beginning of the co-operative movement in the district. Thereafter, some joint-stock banks opened their branches. The establishment of the Saraswathi Bank at Gulbarga in 1922 marked the real beginning of joint-stock banking in the district. The first joint-stock branch bank which was opened at Yadgir in 1939 was that of the Central Bank of India. These and other similar banking institutions which came to be opened later and the co-operative credit institutions changed the financial aspect of the district The people put their faith in institutional banking and the facilities offered by banks. The number of co-operative institutions in the district in 1964 was 1,122. Further, the State Government is offering many incentives by way of financial assistance to the farmers and industrial establishments.

Planning

Organised planning has come to stay and has been accepted as the national policy. In the task of raising the economic level of the district, successful efforts have been made in the agricultural field, but in the industrial sphere there had not been much progress till recently because of the paucity of power. More foodgrains are being grown from the land by improved methods. As mentioned earlier, the irrigation potential is yet to be harnessed. In several other fields notably in minor irrigation, animal husbandry,

small-scale industries, community development and communications, much work has been done. All these will assure a better economic condition for the people of the district.

Power.

Till recently, the district had no hydro-electric power supply. But power generated at the Tungabhadra Left Bank Power Station has been made available since 1963. This power runs from Raichur to Shahabad and from there to Humnabad through Gulbarga. The hydel power now supplied has opened up the path to promotion of several industries in the district. The speed with which the Sharavathi hydel scheme is being pushed through also promises further possibilities for the economic development of this area.

Minerals

The mineral wealth of a district is its great asset and the district of Gulbarga has long been noted for its mineral resources. Gold is found near Manglur village in Shorapur taluk. Numerous old workings for gold in the western parts of Shorapur taluk indicate that this area was systematically explored, prospected and mined for gold by ancient miners who were skilled in mining and metallurgy. A survey conducted by the Hyderabad Geological Survey has disclosed a few more old workings on the eastern flank of Manglur hill. Copper is available near the village Tintini. Gypsum, useful for the cement industry, is found to the south of Gundgurthi, 16 miles east of Gulbarga along the Gulbarga-Seram Road This mineral occurs in black-cotton soil in the form of small crystals and nodules. Small crystals are found distributed near Kembhavi in the Shorapur taluk. Further, extensive deposits of limestone suitable for the manufacture of cement are found in Gulbarga district notably near Chittapur, Jevargi, Chincholi, Shahapur, Shorapur, Nalwar, Wadi, Shahabad, Seram and Malkhed covering an area of 1,500 square miles. At present, the Associated Cement Company, which has established a big cement plant at Shahabad, is exploiting the limestone occurrences near Bankur. Every day, about 2,500 tons of limestone are quarried and utilised in the manufacture of cement. There is scope for establishment of more cement factories in the district, due to the availability of limestone in large quantities.

Communications

Road communications in Gulbarga were quite inadequate in relation to the size of this district. However, with the implementation of the Five-Year Plans, the position gradually improved. The total length of different types of roads, which was 720 miles in 1962 increased to 1,064 miles in 1964. These roads include State highways, major district roads, other district roads and village roads. Most of the important places have been linked by roads. It is possible now to go from the district headquarters to all the taluk headquarters. But the soil pattern of the area and the surface of roads make it impossible to run vehicles in some

areas in the rainy season. There are several schemes in the Five-Year Plans to asphalt all the major roads. When these schemes are fully implemented, the roads can carry a heavier traffic than at present. The submersible bridge across the Bhima river in Shahapur taluk and the Tintini bridge across the Krishna in Shorapur taluk open up great potentialities in the sphere of communications. The broad gauge railway lines from Madras to Bombay and from Hyderabad to Wadi run through the district. After the Bombay-Madras line was laid between 1861-1871 and also after the Hyderabad-Wadi railway line was opened for traffic in 1874, the trade of the district began to increase and these railway lines have afforded good scope for economic development. There is a possibility of laying a broad gauge link from Gulbarga through Humnabad right up to Purli-Vaidyanath. As the means of communications in the north of the district are scanty, this new line will be a boon. As the inter-village communications in the district are not very satisfactory, there is a great deal yet to be done in this sphere.

Standard of Living

In one of the publications of the Hyderabad Government published in 1948, an account of the economic conditions of the then Hyderabad State of which Gulbarga was a district is given. The relevant paragraphs are quoted here in full.

" The Hyderabad economy is still more or less feudalistic. Nearly 45 per cent of the State is under the feudalistic overlordship of the jagirdars and zamindars. People are poor . . . . . Population is growing at a tremendously rapid rate accelerating poverty and misery. Illiteracy and ignorance are rampant. The average income per capita, the average standard of life, the average value of work are so low and poor that they make living precarious. More than 90 per cent of the population are victims to old habits and traditions of bygone days. Progress and prosperity are considered as gifts from heaven and not the result of human effort and regulation.

" Economically, Hyderabad is still deficit in certain food items and is dependent to a very large degree upon import of consumer goods.............. For vital necessities such as cloth, building materials and food and food products, we depend upon outside markets. There is neither cheap nor plentiful power which is so essential for prosperity."[1]

" Economic crisis of the worst type is deepening. Production is falling down precipitously. Evil effects of inflation are working havoc..........Deflationary trends are pressing hard. Deficit

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1 The Hyderabad Government Bulletin on Economic Affairs with Conference Supplement, December 1948, p. 1056.

budgets both in the Centre and the Provinces and States are indicated."[1]

As regards the agricultural conditions in the Karnatak region of the old Hyderabad State, which includes Gulbarga district, it has been said that ".............the rainfall is less and the soil naturally so rich that the ryots have never been anxious to grow wet crops. In some places, advantage has been taken of the water obtainable from rivers and wells and garden crops which were more profitable than dry crops, are extensively grown................ the ryots are not interested in growing rice crops.............. People use wheat or jowar for food. Physical condition of both the ryots and their cattle is reflected by their staple food crops and establishes a superiority of wheat and jowar rice."[2]

The living conditions of the people in the district of Gulbarga have changed since the time of the above quoted publications. In 1952, jagirs were abolished and the other agrarian reforms introduced by the Government have helped, to some extent, to better the standard of living of the rural masses. Further, there is more of urbanisation through the years, more lands have been put to agricultural use, a definite beginning has been made in the sphere of industrialisation and a growth of a sense of social values is apparent. Educational advancement is proceeding rapidly and more boys and girls are attending schools. Compulsory primary education also has been introduced. The various land laws assuring a permanency in the land tenures have pushed up agricultural production. The agricultural labourers have grown in strength, as also industrial labour. The produce from the cultivated field is fetching a higher return. Though farming has remained the main occupation, there are other avocations which assure extra income which contributes to a better standard of living. The district is particularly marked in the size of its middle-class group, which constitutes an important factor of the social structure. The socialistic approach in Government policies is gradually reducing the imbalance between the rich and the poor.

In the absence of any detailed economic survey of the area, it is rather difficult to assess the standard of living, as it differs from class to class and from place to place. One popular method of knowing the standard of living is to find out the items of income and expenditure, that is, to adopt the method of the formation and analysis of the family budgets. It is not possible to deal with the standard of living of Gulbarga district on the basis of this method as there is no authentic record or survey report throwing light on the income and expenditure of different classes of families.

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1 Ibid, p. 1056—1057.

2 The Economic Life of Hyderabad, All India Economic Conference, Twenty-first Session, Hyderabad-Deccan, 1937, pp. 28-29.

Therefore, an attempt may be made here to sketch only the general standard of living in the district with the help of cost of living index numbers. Standard of living may be easily assessed in relation to the past when foodgrain prices were low and the purchasing power of the rupee was high. It cannot be denied, particularly after 1939 when the Second World War broke out and the subsequent years, that the consumer was hit hard. Rising prices invariably tell upon the standard of living of the community. Those of low income groups, and especially those with fixed salaries, suffer the severest in times of rising prices. The cost of living index of Gulbarga has been fluctuating form 1949 to 1965. The following statement shows the increase in the cost of living index in Gulbarga town from time to time.

Monthly working class cost of living index numbers for Gulbarga Town—1948 to 1965 (Base: August 1943—July 1944=100).

Year or Month		*Food*	*Fuel or Lighting*	*Clothing*	*Rent*	*Miscellaneous*	*Intoxicants*	*General cost of living index*
1948	..	177	199	130	100	203	210	178
1949	..	186	204	125	100	182	249	178
1950	.	154	183	123	100	191	293	150
1951	..	160	169	129	100	210	203	161
1952	.	138	167	129	100	200	310	147
1953	..	151	154	130	100	190	322	154
1954	..	146	157	125	100	186	322	150
1955	..	125	158	124	100	184	319	136
1956	..	109	156	130	100	199	269	165
1957	..	163	136	116	100	184	230	157
1958	..	144	128	124	100	190	263	146
1959	.	160	136	131	100	193	263	158
1960	..	169	..	..	..	..	..	166
1961	..	160.72	155 07	134.06	100.00	197.96	292.68	161.29
1962	..	167.19	155 45	134 19	100 00	202.05	292.68	165 41
1963	..	175 14	158 59	135.06	100.00	211.73	296.34	172 40
1964	.	216.83	161.99	143 15	100.00	232.53	332.27	204 12
1965	..	244.56	162.72	145.05	100.00	219 94	351.19	222.27
1965—								
January	..	270 53	161.52	144.88	100.00	210 10	333.33	238 17
February	..	239 19	161 52	144.87	100 00	210.23	333 33	217.38
March	..	221.97	161.52	144 90	100 00	211.35	333.33	205 99
April	..	223 50	161.52	145 15	100.00	212.20	357 14	207.71
May	..	224.50	161.52	145 15	100.00	217.45	357 14	208 81
June	..	233 29	161 52	145 15	100.00	218.70	357.14	214 76
July	..	244.17	162.58	144.70	100 00	219 64	357.14	222 08
August	..	251.17	163.81	145.33	100.00	224.91	357 14	227.34
September	..	253.18	163.81	145.33	100.00	225.23	357.14	228.71
October	..	253.99	163.81	145.33	100.00	228.62	357.14	229.53
November	..	259 43	164.75	145 33	100 00	229 56	357.14	233.29
December	..	259.75	164.75	144.52	100 00	230 76	357.14	233.27

The general cost of living index in Gulbarga town (August 1943 to July 1944 as the base year) increased to 178 in 1948 and the cost of living index for food was 177. There was a further rise in 1949 and then on from 1950 to 1955, there were fluctuations in the cost of living index numbers. There was a sudden rise between

1955 and 1956 and the cost of living index numbers for food and the general index in 1956 were 169 and 165, as against 125 and 136 in the previous year. Except in the year 1958, when there was a little fall in the cost of living, the general level was almost the same from 1956 to 1961. Since then it is steadily rising and touched 222.27 in 1965. It is also evident from the table above that the prices of food and non-food articles and the general cost of living recorded a sharp rise during the last decade. Whether it is due to food articles or non-food articles, the fact remains that the cost of living has gone up to a level at which it is rather difficult for a majority of people to make both ends meet. In the pre-war period, a rupee could purchase commodities worth 16 annas on an average ; the same rupee could purchase commodities worth eleven annas in 1941-42, six and a half annas in 1942-43 and four and three-fourths annas in 1943-44. The value of the rupee in 1961, it has been calculated, was between annas two to annas three only. It is, therefore, clear that a man getting one rupee per day as wages in 1943-44 was as good as a man getting four and three-fourths annas per day in the pre-war period. In spite of all these, it must be said that the living standard in general is better now than in the past decade. The impact of urban life and modern means of communication also had some bearing on the food habits in the remote villages. People in villages have begun to adopt the ways of urban life. The socialistic pattern adopted as a measure of State policy and the rising tempo of industrial and agricultural activities under the successive plans may usher in a better standard in the years to come.

Shift from agriculture to industry

The district of Gulbarga, as mentioned elsewhere, has a good prospect of starting several small-scale industries and a few large-scale industries. The industrial potentiality of the district is still untapped. At the moment, there is only one large-scale cement factory at Shahabad which employed about 2,000 persons in 1964 and a textile mill at Gulbarga which employed about 2,600 persons in 1965. Apart from these, persons employed in small-scale industries are not more than four to five per cent of the total population. The shift from agriculture to industry is as yet not very marked nor is there much of shift from one industry to another.

Employment Exchange

The district of Gulbarga had no independent Employment Exchange till very recently. It was only on 13th February 1959 that an Employment Exchange was opened at Gulbarga. The general level of employment in the district is fairly satisfactory, according to the District Employment Office. The District Employment Exchange is the central clearing house for purposes of securing employment in different categories. The Employment Exchange follows a scientific system. It sorts out the vacancies notified to it by employers and classifies the employment-seekers registered with it according to their qualifications, degree of skill and previous experience. All the particulars are noted on cards

and the cards are arranged in such a manner that they can be picked out quickly whenever a candidate has to be matched against a vacancy. When the vacancy is notified, the exchange examines the cards of persons of the appropriate category on its register and matches the vacancies with the men most suitable for filling them. As a rule, the employment exchanges are manned by staff who are able to assess the aptitudes of the persons who seek their assistance in securing employment and fit them into jobs where their qualifications and skills will have scope and will be of advantage to the community. Till 1959, it was not compulsory to notify the vacancies through the Employment Exchange. The enforcement of the Compulsory Notification of Vacancies Act, 1959, has made it obligatory on the part of private employers also to notify their vacancies through the Exchange. The following statistics as supplied by the District Employment Exchange, Gulbarga, show the employment situation in the district :—

Year	*Registration*	*Placements*	*Vacancies notified to the Employment Exchange*	*Applicants on the Live Register at the end of the year.*
1960-61	6,097	1,111	1,204	3,217
1961-62	4,578	1,461	1,752	2,591
1962-63	5,805	1,209	2,441	3,258
1963-64	6,214	923	1,131	4,347
1964-65 .. .	6,151	688	1,132	4,512

Community Development.

After 1947, the character of the administration, both at the Centre and in the States, has undergone a change. The aim now is to frame schemes of development and to decentralise the activities of the State. The administration now has been taken right to the villages. The idea is that the raiyat in his village will get the services of a trained animal husbandry man and experts on medicine and public health, agriculture, co-operation, industries and the like. The Community Development programme was started in the country on 2nd October 1952 with the establishment of 55 Community Projects in various parts of India. Three projects out of these were located in Mysore State but it was only in 1954 that two Blocks were first set up in Gulbarga district, one at Gulbarga and the other at Yadgir.

The First Plan struck the keynote of this programme when it stated : " National Extension Service is the agency and the community development the method through which the Five-Year

Plans seek to initiate a process of transformation of the social and economic life of the villages". Thus, this new movement of "aided self-help" symbolises an integrated extension agency, a multi-purpose development programme, new extension methods and techniques of community mobilisation and a process of education.

Community Development is a process designed to create conditions of economic and social progress for the whole community and the fullest possible reliance upon its initiative. It implies the integration of two sets of forces making for human welfare, neither of which can do the job alone: (1) the opportunity and capacity for co-operation, self-help, ability to assimilate and adopt new ways of living that are latent in every human group and (2) the availability of a fund of techniques and skills in every social and economic field, drawn from world-wide experience, and now in use or at the disposal of the national Government and agencies. It is a most promising agency for improving rural life.

The multi-purpose programme of community development blocks was meant to bring about an extensive and diversified area under development. It includes schemes for the development of agriculture, animal husbandry, co-operation, rural industries, health and sanitation, rural communication, education and social education. Thus, it is a comprehensive covering of all phases of rural life. The nucleus Block budget contains financial provision in respect of all these programmes. No doubt, the pattern of this budget has undergone changes from time to time. The pattern which was initially called as community projects was later on converted into the N.E S./C.D. Blocks and then into intensive and post-intensive. To-day, the accepted system consists of pre-extension, I stage and II stage blocks. But at all times, the community development programme was characterised by its comprehensiveness, simultaneously including livelihood amenities and social recreation aspects of rural life. Over the years, however, the emphasis of this programme has undergone a change and the centre of gravity has shifted from the mere amenity aspects to the more demanding aspect of economic development which lays a premium on agriculture and rural industries.

The unit of operation in the community development programme is the development block which represents, on an average, 100 villages with a population of 60,000 to 70,000 spread over an area of 150 to 170 square miles. In Gulbarga district, as said already, the community development programme was introduced in 1954 and it is now extended to all the taluks of the district. The following is the statement indicating the details of blocks, like dates of their inception and year of allotment, stage, dates of

conversion to the present stage and the number of villages covered, etc :—

Sl. No.	Name of the Block	Year of allotment	Date of inauguration	Stage	Date of conversion to the present stage	No. of villages covered
1.	Gulbarga Block Unit I.	1954	3-7-1954	Stage II	1-4-1958	137
2.	Gulbarga Block Unit II.	1954	3-7-1954	Stage II	1-4-1958	137
3.	Aland Block Unit I.	1956	4-4-1956	Do	..	127
4.	Aland Block Unit II.	1957	1-4-1957	Stage I	....	127
5.	Afzalpur Block	1959	3-10-1959	Do	2-10-1960	90
6.	Chittapur Block	1960	2-10-1960	Do	2-10-1961	120
7	Chittapur (Kalgi Block).	1962	1-4-1962	Do	.	120
8.	Seram Block	1958	2-10-1958	Do	2-10-1959	112
9.	Chincholi Block	1957	2-10-1957	Do	Do	126
10.	Yadgir Block Unit I.	1954	2-10-1954	Stage II	1-4-1965	130
11.	Yadgir Block Unit II. (Saidapur)	1957	1-4-1957	Stage I	..	130
12.	Shahapur Block Unit I.	1956	5-10-1956	Do	..	143
13.	Shahapur Block Unit II.	1957	1-4-1957	Do	..	143
14.	Jevargi Block Unit I.	1961	2-10-1961	Do	..	158
15.	Jevargi Block Unit II.	1962	6-7-1962	Pre-extension	..	158
16.	Shorapur Block Unit I.	1962	2-10-1962	Stage I	2-10-1963	187 (16 and 17)
17.	Shorapur Block Unit II.	1962	2-10-1962	Stage I	2-10-1963	

During the First Five-Year Plan, Community Development Blocks were started in Gulbarga district in parts of four taluks, *viz.*, Gulbarga, Yadgir, Aland and Shahapur. The expenditure incurred during the First Five-Year Plan in these blocks was Rs. 15,20,195. During the Second Five-Year Plan, further eight blocks were started which covered the remaining portions of the above four taluks (*viz.*, Gulbarga, Yadgir, Aland and Shahapur) and the entire taluks of Chincholi, Seram and Afzalpur and 66 villages of Chittapur taluk. The rest of the area of Chittapur taluk was covered under the Third Five-Year Plan, as also the remaining two taluks of Jevargi and Shorapur. Thus in October 1965, there were, in all, 17 blocks in the district covering all the taluks, of which 7 were Stage II Blocks, 8 Stage I Blocks and 2 post-Stage II. The expenditure incurred during the Second Plan by all the blocks functioning in the district was Rs. 52,87,204. The amount which was made available under the community development programme in the district during the Third Five-Year Plan was Rs. 1,14,65,118.

For advising on and co-ordinating the developmental activities in the district,there is a District Development Council with the Deputy Commissioner as the ex-officio Chairman. The District Development Council consists of Members of the State Legislature, Members of Parliament, Presidents of Taluk Development Boards of the district, a representative each of women, Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes and the district heads of Agriculture, Animal Husbandry, Co-operation, Health Services and other development Departments. At the taluk level, there is a Taluk Development Board with a non-official Chairman and with the Block Development Officer as the *ex-officio* Chief Executive Officer. At the village level there is a village level worker, who works in co-operation with the village panchayat. He is ultimately responsible for putting into practice plans formulated for the development of villages under his charge and, as the person directly in contact with the village people, it is he who can make them fully appreciate the significance of the programme and draw them out to take a leading part in its implementation. The village level worker who is a multi-purpose worker seeks to act as an adviser on agriculture, education, public health, veterinary aid, co-operation. housing and in fact, on all problems that may confront the villagers in their work. The block development institutions are thus intended to enlist their active co-operation and to assist them in their efforts to improve their own condition.

The following is the statement showing the block expenditure in Gulbarga district from the inception of the scheme upto the end of 1964-65:—

Sl. No.	Name of the Block	Total amount sanctioned for the project period	Progressive expenditure since the inception of the Block to the end of March 1965	Allotment for the Year 1965-66
		Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
1.	Gulbarga Block Unit I	25,50,116	22,39,960	68,060
2.	Gulbarga Block Unit II	5,82,148	5,29,151	68,060
3.	Aland Block Unit I ..	17,00,000	11,95,580	1,18,510
4.	Aland Block Unit II ..	17,00,000	12,40,618	1,08,510
5.	Afzalpur Block ..	12,00,000	6,57,916	1,08,510
6.	Chittapur Block Unit I	12,00,000	3,55,563	1,68,510
7.	Chittapur Block Unit II	12,00,000	2,45,627	1,68,510
8.	Seram Block ..	12,00,000	9,91,312	1,28,510
9.	Yadgir Block Unit I ..	17,00,000	9,80,832	1,18,510
10.	Yadgir Block Unit II ..	17,00,000	4,95,366	1,18,510
11.	Shahapur Block Unit I	17,00,000	11,17,549	1,18,510
12.	Shahapur Block Unit II	17,00,000	0,61,219	1,18,510
13.	Jevargi Block Unit I ..	12,00,000	1,89,423	1,68,000
14.	Jevargi Block Unit II ..	12,00,000	1,64,195	1,68,000
15.	Shorapur Block Unit I ..	12,00,000	1,64,749	1,68,000
16.	Shorapur Block Unit II	12,00,000	1,25,301	1,68,000
17.	Chincholi Block ..	17,00,000	11,69,643	1,18,510
	Total ..	2,46,32,264	1,28,24,012	22,01,730

The progress reports of the blocks suggest that the blocks are helping to bring about better cropping pattern, larger turnover and better facilities for rural credit. With the available facts, a picture is given below of the progress made in some of the departments in the district.

Agriculture

Increasing importance is being given to distribution of improved seeds and fertilisers, preparation of urban and rural compost, supply of tractor and bull-dozer services and timely plant protection measures in the Community Development areas. Ample propaganda is done in regard to the application of manures and fertilisers by the agriculturists in the district and adequate attention is also paid towards the supply of manure and fertilisers to the agriculturists to the extent possible. Sufficient quantities of insecticides and pesticides are supplied in times of need to the agriculturists to fight pests and various types of diseases. During 1965, an area of one lakh acres, sown with tur crop was sprayed with insecticides and pesticides. The number of irrigation wells sunk during the period from 1960 to 1965 was about 1,500 and sinking of 1,530 more wells was in progress; 1,215 pump sets worked by diesel engines and 25 by electrical power were supplied to the agriculturists. To introduce a spirit of competition amongst the cultivators, crop competition scheme was introduced in the district. To impress upon the agriculturists, the importance of manures and fertilisers and the use of improved seeds, demonstrations were conducted in all the taluks of the district. Special training classes in dry-farming practices were conducted on seed-multiplication farms and about 50 sets of dry-farming implements were supplied to the cultivators interested in dry-farming cultivation. About 30 agricultural demonstration centre farms were established on the fields of selected cultivators and improved methods of cultivation were shown to the agriculturists. To acquaint the agriculturists with the latest and most promising methods of agriculture, training classes were also conducted. During the *kharif* and *rabi* seasons, field days were organised on all the seed multiplication farms, and training in improved methods of cultivation, use of improved seeds, manures, implements, and manufacture of compost and farm manure was imparted. Farmers' forums were established in selected taluks and a District Farmers' Forum was also established.

Animal Husbandry and Veterinary Services

At the commencement of the First Five-Year Plan, there was only one veterinary hospital at Gulbarga, and six veterinary dispensaries in six taluks including Gulbarga taluk. During First Five-Year Plan, veterinary aid centres with small poultry units were opened at Kamalapur and Saidapur. During the Second Five-Year Plan, six rural veterinary dispensaries were opened. By the end of the Second Five-Year Plan, all the dispensaries in the district were upgraded and converted into taluk-type dispensaries. To improve the breed of cattle breeding bulls at the rate of five per year were distributed since 1957. One Poultry Extension Centre

at a cost of Rs. 53,000 and one Key Village Scheme at a cost of Rs. 73,000 were started at Gulbarga.

Industries

Seven trained industrial extension officers were working in the various blocks of the district. A sum of Rs. 1,92,337 was expended during the Second Plan period for the development of rural arts and crafts. The number of candidates trained in various crafts was 340 and the amount spent out of the block budget for payment of stipends was Rs. 13,036. The grant-in-aid towards managerial charges paid to the industrial co-operatives in the district was Rs. 38,200. A sum of Rs. 47,443 was spent from the block funds for the supply of improved tools and equipment to the artisans on a subsidy basis. Besides, demonstration equipment worth Rs. 2,833 to the blocks, and equipment to the Rural Artisan Training Institute worth Rs. 26,182 were supplied. A sum of Rs. 20,204 was given as grant-in-aid to the crafts. In addition to the above, a training centre was organised from the block funds at Yadgir for imparting training to artisans and a sum of Rs. 41,885 was spent for the purpose. Besides all these, loans and grants were given by the development blocks of the district to industrial co-operatives of the area.

Housing

Under the housing programmes undertaken by the community development blocks in the district, the following number of houses were constructed in the district during the period from 1960 to 1965 :—

Name of the Block		*Target fixed*	*No. of houses completed*	*No. of houses in progress*
Gulbarga	..	55	39	16
Yadgir (Saidapur)	.	144	100	44
Aland	..	361	66	271
Afzalpur	..	72	72	..
Chincholi	..	73	61	12
Seram	..	75	19	53
Farhatabad	..	118	46	72
Chittapur	..	50	..	26
Total	..	948	403	494

Education

During the Second Five-Year Plan, 118 primary schools were converted into basic schools. The single teacher junior primary schools and new primary schools which were opened mainly to relieve educated unemployment, were 149 and 217 respectively. Since the reorganisation of States till 1964-65, there was much improvement in the construction of school buildings.

TABLE 1

Annual average retail prices of wheat, rice and jowar from 1892 to 1919 in Gulbarga district. (In seers per rupee).

Year		*Wheat*	*Rice*	*Jowar*
1892	.	8½	8½	13½
1893	.	9¾	9¼	12
1894	.	..	..	..
1895	.	.	..	..
1896	.	5¾	5¼	9¼
1897	..	6¾	6	10⅛
1898	.	9½	8¼	19¾
1899	.	6	5	8⅛
1900	.	6¼	5¼	11
1901	.	7¼	5¾	15½
1902	..	8	7¾	24½
1903		9¾	12	28½
1904	..	9	11¼	20
1905	..	6⅛	7¾	13½
1906	.	7	7	15
1907		5¾	5	11
1908	..	6	5½	12
1909		6¾	6¼	12½
1910	.	6½	7	13½
1911	..	5½	6	11½
1912	..	5	5½	10½
1913	.	5	5½	11
1914	..	6¼	5¾	14
1915	..	6¼	6¾	14
1916	..	6¼	7	12¾
1917	..	4½	4½	5½
1918	.	2¾	2½	4½
1919	.	2¾	2¾	6½

Source —"Wholesale and Retail Prices in the Hyderabad State from 1300 Fasli to 1329 Fasli (1889-90 to 1918-19 A.D)" pp.19 to 41, 1922.

TABLE 2

Quinquennial retail prices of rice, wheat and jowar from 1890 to 1940 in Gulbarga District (In seers per rupee) :—

Period		*Rice*	*Wheat*	*Jowar*
1890—1895	..	9	9	12¾
1896—1900	..	6¾	6	11¾
1901—1905	..	8¼	9	20¼
1906—1910	..	6½	6	12¾
1911—1915	..	5¾	6	12
1916—1920	..	4	4	7¼
1921—1925	..	3½	3½	7
1926—1930	..	3¾	4¼	8¼
1931—1935	..	6¾	7½	14½
1936—1940	..	5¾	6	11¼

Source :—" Retail and Wholesale Prices in the Hyderabad State from 1341 to 1350 Fasli (1931–32 to 1940–41 A.D.)" pp. 40, 42 and 44.

TABLE 3

Statement showing retail prices of staple foodgrains during several famine years in Gulbarga district (In seers per rupee).

Year		*Rice*	*Jowar*
1876—1877	..	5	9½
1877—1878	..	6½	5½
1896—1897	..	5¾	9¼
1899—1900	..	6	8¼
1918—1919	..	2¾	4½
1919—1920	..	2¾	6½
1920—1921	..	3½	4
1921—1922	..	4¼	5
1939—1940	..	5¾	11¼
1940—1941	..	5½	12¾

Source : "Retail and Wholesale Prices in the Hyderabad State from 1341 to 1350 Fasli (1931–32 to 1940–41 A.D.)", pp. 54 and 56.

TABLE 4

Retail prices of paddy, coarse rice, wheat and jowar in seers and chataks per rupee in Gulbarga Centre during 1922 to 1940—41.

Year	Paddy		Coarse Rice		Wheat		Jowar	
1922	7	4	4	2	3	13	4	15
1931—32	16	7	6	4	7	4	16	1
1932—33	18	11	7	7	7	11	14	15
1933—34	19	7	7	6	7	12	15	3
1934—35	14	14	5	14	7	10	11	15
1935—36	15	11	6	8	7	2	13	13
1936—37	14	4	5	13	5	7	10	4
1937—38	13	12	5	9	5	5	10	13
1938—39	14	3	6	5	5	15	10	10
1939—40	13	3	5	14	6	15	11	4
1940—41	13	11	5	8	6	7	12	11
Average of 1931—32 to 1935—36	17	0	6	11	7	8	14	6
Average of 1936—37 to 1940—41	13	13	5	13	6	0	11	2

Source.—"Retail and Whole-sale Prices in the Hyderabad State from 1341 to 1350 Fasli (1931-32 to 1940-41 A.D.)", pp.4, 6, 8 and 10

TABLE 5

Average retail prices of rice, wheat and jowar in Gulbarga Centre from 1948 to 1955 (Prices per seer of 80 tolas).

Year	Rice			Wheat			Jowar		
	Rs.	As	Ps	Rs.	As.	Ps.	Rs.	As.	Ps.
1948	0	10	10	1	4	0	0	7	5
1949	0	12	5	0	15	6	0	7	7
1950	0	6	4	0	8	1	0	5	4
1951	0	6	5	0	8	0	0	5	4
1952	0	7	5	0	9	0	0	5	5
1953	0	8	0	0	10	6	0	5	4
1954	0	8	7	0	10	3	0	5	8
1955	0	5	7	0	7	5	0	4	3

Source.—Statistical Abstract of Hyderabad State 1954, pp. 274-276 and Ibid, 1955. pp. 310-312.

TABLE 6

Statement showing average whole-sale prices of staple foodgrains in Gulbarga district. (Wholesale price per palla of 120 seers.)

Year		*Rice*	*Wheat*	*Jowar*
		Rs. As.	Rs. As.	Rs. As.
1922	..	30-1	45-5	29-8
1931–32	..	14-12	14-7	7-10
1932–33	..	14-8	13-10	7-11
1933–34	..	13-8	13-5	7-8
1934–35	..	17-0	14-14	9-14
1935–36	..	16-11	13-15	8-10
1936–37	..	17-15	19-9	11-0
1937–38	..	20-6	21-3	10-12
1938–39	..	18-8	20-7	11-2
1939–40	..	19-15	17-5	10-9
1940–41	..	21-2	18-12	9-8
Average from 1931–32 to 1935–36		15-5	14-1	8-4
Average from 1936–37 to 1940–41		19-9	19-7	10-9

Source :—" Retail and Wholesale Prices in Hyderabad State from 1341 to 1350 Fasli (1931–32 to 1940–41 A.D.)," pp. 60, 62, 64 and 66.

TABLE 7

Statement showing quinquennial average wholesale prices of staple foodgrains in Gulbarga district.

(in Rupees per palla of 120 seers).

Year		*Rice*	*Wheat*	*Jowar*
		Rs. As.	Rs. As.	Rs. As.
1921–25	..	33-13	36-11	20-8
1926–30	..	30-1	29-2	15-5
1931–35	..	15-5	14-1	8-4
1936–40	..	19-9	19-7	10-9

Source :—" Retail and Wholesale Prices in Hyderabad State from 1341 to 1350 Fasli (1931–32 to 1940–41 A.D.)", pp. 128, 129, 130 and 131.

TABLE 8

Average wholesale prices of staple foodgrains in Gulbarga district (Prices in rupees per maund).

Commodity			1957	1958	1959
			Rs. nP.	Rs nP.	Rs. nP.
Rice	..	..	19.49	19.95	21.59
Wheat	..	..	20.10	19.84	20.96
Jowar	..	.	14.30	12.04	14.12

TABLE 9

Statement showing the year-wise modal prices per quintal of foodgrains in Gulbarga district from 1960-61 to 1964-65.

Commodity		1960 61	1961-62	1062-63	1963-64	1964-65
		Rs	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs
Rice fine	.	74	82	65	75	84
Rice coarse	.	61	58	50	58	70
Wheat bansi	..	56	58	55	55	103
Jowar white	..	38	41	40	42	69
Jowar argadi	..	33	35	36	36	68

TABLE 10

Statement showing the monthly average prices of some of the Agricultural Commodities in the Regulated Market, Gulbarga, for the year 1964-65 (Rates per quintal).

Commodity	*April* 1964	*May* 1964	*June* 1964	*July* 1964	*Aug.* 1964	*Sept.* 1964	*Oct.* 1964	*Nov.* 1964	*Dec.* 1964	*Jan.* 1965	*Feb.* 1965	*March* 1965
Cereals—	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
1. Paddy ..	45	47	55	52	59	64	65	58	69	65	73	65
2. Rice (fine) .	88	84	90	85	83	84	80	84	83	84	84	..
3. Rice(coarse) ..	65	65	70	72	72	66	..	78	..	..	..	..
4. Wheat (bansi) ..	68	85	85	90	107	115	125	119	132	143	90	80
5. Jowar (white) ..	48	55	60	65	70	84	72	78	88	91	62	56
6. Bajra ..	45	46	55	55	56	59	60	68	75	72	60	46
Pulses—												
7. Gram ..	60	65	68	68	80	98	105	118	133	175	118	110
8. Tur ..	75	82	85	85	91	90	95	108	130	115	72	82
9. Moong .	68	80	75	75	80	86	95	86	95	77	60	60
Oilseeds—												
10. Groundnut Pods (bold)	79	86	90	97	98	112	76	72	94	88	85	83
11. Linseed ..	82	83	84	88	88	96	85	95	104	83	89	82
12. Castorseed ..	59	59	60	66	68	70	71	71	77	75	74	70
13. Til (white) ..	128	138	145	162	164	148	138	145	175	160	130	144
Miscellaneous—												
14. Chillies ..	230	225	225	200	180	150	200	200	250	250	225	225
15. Onions ..	12	12	23	20	20	28	25	40	34	14	15	14
16. Tamarind ..	68	78	100	95	92	100	..	108	112	104	115	140
17. Turmeric ..	140	130	125	120	150	145	145	160	153	150	130	125
18. Coriander ..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	150	228	185	..	175

TABLE II

Urban Wages in Gulbarga District in 1935, 1940 and between 1941 and 1945

Year	Blacksmiths		Carpenters		Masons		Unskilled workers		
	Superior daily	Ordinary daily	Superior daily	Ordinary daily	Superior daily	Ordinary daily	Men daily	Women daily	Children daily
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
	Rs. a. p.	Rs. a. p.	Rs. a. p.	Rs. a. p.	Rs. a. p.	Rs. a. p.	Rs. a. p.	Rs. a. p.	Rs. a. p.
1935 ..	1 0 0	0 11 0	0 14 0	0 9 0	0 15 0	0 10 0	0 5 0	0 3 0	0 2 0
1940 ..	1 8 0	0 13 0	1 3 0	0 12 6	1 2 0	0 11 6	0 5 2	0 3 0	0 2 6
1941-45 ..	..	..		No Change			..	..	..

TLBLE 11—*contd.*

Year	*Sweepers Monthly*	*Busties Monthly*	*Malis* *Men Monthly*	*Malis* *Women Monthly*	*Syce Monthly*	*Motor driver Monthly*	*Cook Monthly*	*Source*
	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18
	Rs. a. p.	Rs. a. p.	Rs. a. p.	Rs. a. p.	Rs. a. p.	Rs. a. p.	Rs. a. p.	
1935 ..	1 3 0	1 13 0	9 0 0	..	7 2 0	..	..	Statistical Year Book 1938, published by the Director of Statistics, Hyderabad Government 1941, pp. 978-979.
1940 ..	4 0 0	8 0 0	9 0 0	6 0 0	10 0 0	25 0 0	12 0 0	Statistical Year Book 1941, published by the Director of Statistics, Hyderabad Government 1946, pp. 996-997.
1941-45 ..	.	..	..	No Change		..	..	Statistical Year Book, 1941-42 to 1944-45, 1949, p. 1274.

TABLE 12

Average rates of wages for various types of agricultural labourers according to nature of agricultural operations in Gulbarga in 1938-39 and 1949-50.

Agricultural Operations and Year	Cash Wage (No Perquisites)									Kind (No Perquisites)								
	Men			Women			Children			Men			Women			Children		
1	2			3			4			5			6			7		
	Rs.	a.	p.	Rs.	a.	p.	Rs.	a.	p.	Rs.	a.	p.	Rs.	a.	p.	Rs.	a.	p.
Ploughing—																		
1938–39 ..	0	6	1	0	3	4		.		0	4	3	0	3	6		..	
1949–50 ..	1	1	10	0	11	4	0	8	0	1	3	8	0	11	4	0	8	0
Embanking—																		
1938–39 ..	0	5	3	0	2	6	0	2	5	0	5	0	0	2	3	0	1	10
1949–50 ..	1	0	7	0	10	3	0	9	0	1	3	3	0	10	3	0	10	9
Harrowing—																		
1938–39 ..	0	5	0		..		0	1	11	0	3	8	0	3	6	0	2	4
1949–50 ..	1	0	1	0	13	4	0	11	1	1	2	1	0	13	4	0	11	7
Manuring—																		
1938–39 ..	0	5	2	0	2	6	0	2	5	0	4	2	0	2	2	0	1	5
1949–50 ..	0	15	3	0	9	3	0	8	4	1	2	1	0	10	8	0	11	3

TABLE 12—(*contd.*)

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Sowing—						
1938–39 ..	0 5 3	0 3 2	0 2 5	0 5 4	0 3 9	0 2 0
1949–50 ..	1 2 0	0 8 7	0 7 9	1 4 1	0 11 6	0 11 3
Transplanting—						
1938–39 ..	0 4 10	0 2 4	0 2 4	0 4 3	0 2 10	0 2 8
1949–50 ..	1 1 10	0 8 8	0 8 4	1 1 10	0 10 2	0 11 7
Weeding—						
1938–39 ..	0 4 5	0 2 5	0 2 4	0 4 0	0 2 6	0 2 2
1949–50 ..	0 13 0	0 8 1	0 8 3	0 14 4	0 9 8	0 8 11
Irrigating—						
1938–39 ..	0 5 0	0 2 6	..	0 4 5	0 3 0	..
1949–50 ..	0 15 6	0 6 3	0 8 0	1 2 1	0 8 0	0 8 0
Harvesting—						
1938–39 ..	0 5 1	0 2 11	0 2 2	0 6 2	0 3 8	0 3 9
1949–50 ..	1 4 4	0 12 3	0 7 1	1 3 1	0 11 2	0 10 3
Threshing—						
1938–39 ..	0 4 8	0 2 8	0 2 5	0 6 2	0 4 1	0 3 7
1949–50 ..	1 1 2	0 8 10	0 7 6	1 5 3	0 13 0	0 14 7

Source :—Report on Agricultural Wages in India, issued by the Ministry of Labour, Government of India.

CHAPTER X

GENERAL ADMINISTRATION

THE administrative history of the district and the various changes effected in the administrative set-up from time to time have been set forth in Chapter I "General". The pattern of general administration is dealt with in the following paragraphs.

Before the reorganisation of States in 1956, the district of Gulbarga consisted of twelve taluks with three administrative sub-divisions with their headquarters at Gulbarga, Tandur and Yadgir. After the reorganisation of States, the two Telugu-speaking taluks, Tandur and Kodangal, were transferred to Andhra Pradesh. The district now consists of ten taluks with two administrative sub-divisions, Gulbarga and Yadgir. Gulbarga sub-division consists of five taluks, *viz.*, Gulbarga, Aland, Seram, Chittapur and Afzalpur, while Yadgir sub-division consists of the taluks of Yadgir, Shorapur, Shahapur, Jevargi and Chincholi. These two sub-divisions are under the charge of Assistant Commissioners.

Deputy Commissioner

The Revenue Administration of the district is headed by the Deputy Commissioner; under him are the Headquarters Assistant to the Deputy Commissioner, the two Assistant Commissioners in charge of Gulbarga and Yadgir sub-divisions, the Food Assistant, the District Development Assistant, the District Treasury Officer, the Office Assistant to the Deputy Commissioner, and the ten Tahsildars, all gazetted, besides the non-gazetted staff of superintendents and other officials.

The general administration of the district is also under the charge of the Deputy Commissioner. He is the Additional District Magistrate in charge of the administration of law and order in the district. In addition to his duties as the revenue head of the district, the Deputy Commissioner holds the *ex-officio* posts of District Registrar exercising supervision over all the Sub-Registrars, Deputy Development Commissioner for supervision over developmental activities, Chairman, District Advisory Committee under the National Savings Scheme, Chairman, District Co-ordination Committee of officers, Chairman, District Regional Transport Authority and Chairman, District Family Planning Scheme and

the District Development Council. He is also the head of the District Treasury. In addition, he exercises certain powers under the provisions of the Mysore Land Acquisition Act, the Hyderabad Endowments Act, the Hyderabad Land Improvement Loans Act, 1950, the Hyderabad Tenancy and Agricultural Lands Act, 1950, the Mysore Land Records of Rights Act, 1958, the Hyderabad Court of Wards Act, 1940, and the Mysore Village Panchayats and Local Boards Act, 1959. He has control over the district police for purposes of law and order and his functions as Additional District Magistrate are governed by specific Government orders. In short, he is the pivot of the district administration and exercises direct and indirect supervision over all departments at the district level. He is directly responsible to the Divisional Commissioner, Gulbarga Division.

During the First Five-Year Plan period, the National Extension Service was set up through which improvements of all aspects of village life were undertaken. Under the scheme, the Deputy Commissioner is designated as the Deputy Development Commissioner for the Community Development Programmes. The Deputy Development Commissioner is in overall charge of all the blocks in his jurisdiction. He is required to have a clear picture of the normal working of several departments at the district level so as to evolve an integrated approach to the various developmental activities. He has to convene periodical staff meetings attended by all the District Officers and the Block Development Officers, at which the block programmes and achievements are reviewed.

Government had appointed an Additional Deputy Commissioner for Gulbarga, under the provisions of the Mysore Additional Deputy Commissioners (Appointment and Powers) Act, 1962 (Mysore Act No. 18 of 1962). Under the Land Acquisition Act, 1894 (Central Act No. I of 1894), Government had empowered this officer to perform the functions of Deputy Commissioner under the said Act within his jurisdiction. Government had also authorised him to exercise all the powers vested in the Deputy Commissioner by or under the enactments specified below and the rules, orders and notifications made or issued under the said enactments :

(1) The Mysore Land Revenue Act, 1964.
(2) The Hyderabad Land Improvement Loans Act, 1950.
(3) The Hyderabad Tenancy and Agricultural Lands Act, 1950.
(4) The Mysore Land Records of Rights Act, 1958.
(5) The Hyderabad Court of Wards Act, 1940.

The post of the Additional Deputy Commissioner, Gulbarga was, however, abolished on 30th November, 1963.

Assistant Commissioner

There are six officers of the Assistant Commissioner's cadre in the district. They are the Headquarters Assistant to the Deputy Commissioner, the Assistant Commissioner, Gulbarga Sub-Division, the Assistant Commissioner, Yadgir Sub-Division, the District Development Assistant, the Food Assistant and the District Treasury Officer. All these officers assist the Deputy Commissioner in revenue administration. The two Assistant Commissioners of Gulbarga and Yadgir are in direct charge of their respective sub-divisions. In all revenue matters, these sub-divisional officers are appellate authorities over the orders passed by the Tahsildars. They exercise such of the powers imposed and conferred upon the Deputy Commissioner under the Land Revenue Act. They are also *ex-officio* First Class Magistrates and Rent Controllers in their respective jurisdictions. The Headquarters Assistant to the Deputy Commissioner is the House Rent Controller for Gulbarga city.

The District Treasury Officer is in charge of the District Treasury and Taluk Treasuries in the district.

Tahsildars

There are ten Tahsildars in the district of Gulbarga Their duties and powers as Taluk Revenue Officers are such as are imposed or conferred upon them under the Mysore Land Revenue Act and the Rules framed thereunder. They are the heads of the revenue administration of the taluks.

Police

The other department which is next in importance on the executive side is the police headed by the Superintendent of Police who has his headquarters at Gulbarga. The Superintendent of Police was being assisted in his work, in October 1965, by three Deputy Superintendents of Police, nine Inspectors, thirty-six Sub-Inspectors, six Assistant Sub-Inspectors, thirteen Jamedars, one hundred and fifty-seven Head Constables and one thousand and seventy constables. The Superintendent of Police was also being assisted in his work by the District Armed Reserve Police force consisting of one Reserve Inspector, seven Sub-Inspectors, six Assistant Reserve Sub-Inspectors, forty-three Head Constables and two hundred and sixty constables. Besides this permanent strength, fifteen Head Constables and twenty-five police constables were working in temporary establishment.

There was also a special branch attached to the Gulbarga district police which dealt with confidential information relating to political parties, communal organisations, trade unions and agrarian associations. An Inspector of Police managed this section and he worked directly under the Superintendent of Police.

One Sub-Inspector of Police, eight Head Constables and thirty constables stationed at Wadi Railway Junction constituted the railway police force in Gulbarga district as in October 1965

Three police stations were under the control of the railway police at Wadi Station, Shahabad Outpost and Gulbarga Outpost.

District Judge

The District Judge is the chief judicial authority of the district. He is appointed by the State Government in consultation with the High Court of Mysore. As the District and Sessions Judge, he is the presiding officer over the District and Sessions Court. He is also an appellate authority with reference to the decisions of the Munsiffs in civil cases and Magistrates including the District Magistrate in criminal cases. Besides performing the judicial functions as the head of the judiciary in the district and unit officer, he has administrative jurisdiction and exercises general supervision and control over the judiciary in the district.

There was an Additional District and Sessions Judge for Gulbarga and Raichur. He was sitting at Gulbarga to hear cases arising in Gulbarga district, and at Raichur to look into the cases arising in Raichur district. This Additional District and Sessions Judge's court was abolished with effect from the 1st of April 1965.

There is a Civil Judge's Court at Gulbarga. He is also the District Magistrate of the district performing specified duties under appropriate Acts.

Munsiff-Magistrates

The Munsiff-Magistrates have their courts in Gulbarga city, Shorapur, Chittapur, Aland, Yadgir, Seram and Chincholi. Litigation is heavy in Shorapur and Gulbarga. Hence, with effect from July 1965, an additional post of a Munsiff-Magistrate at Shorapur, was temporarily created. So far as Gulbarga is concerned, there are two other Munsiff-Magistrates' Courts in Gulbarga called the First Additional Munsiff-Magistrate's Court and the Second Additional Munsiff-Magistrate's Court. Consequent upon the implementation of the Mysore Civil Courts Act, the Munsiffs have been empowered to entertain civil suits upto the value of Rs. 10,000 within their jurisdiction.

Other Officers in the district

The other officers working in the district, including Divisional Officers, are specified below. It is unnecessary to describe their functions here, as in the case of most of them, their designations give an idea of their functions, while the functions of others have been described in the appropriate chapters.

1 The Deputy Director of Public Instruction.
2. The District Educational Officer.
3. The District Health Officer.
4. The District Surgeon.
5. The District Agricultural Officer.
6. The District Officer, Animal Husbandry and Veterinary Services.

7. The Assistant Director of Industries and Commerce.
8. The Superintending Engineer, Public Works Department.
9. The Executive Engineer, Public Works Department.
10. The Executive Engineer, Public Health Department.
11. The Executive Engineer, Irrigation Investigation Division No. I.
12. The Commercial Tax Officer.
13. The Deputy Registrar of Co-operative Societies.
14. The Assistant Registrar of Co-operative Societies.
15. The Special Auditor, Co-operative Societies.
16. The Divisional Forest Officer.
17. The District Employment Officer.
18. The District Social Welfare Officer.
19. The Divisional Controller, Mysore State Road Transport Corporation.
20. The Regional Transport Officer.
21. The Superintending Engineer, Mysore State Electricity Board.
22. The Executive Engineer, Mysore State Electricity Board.
23. The District Horticultural Inspector.
24. The District Statistical Officer.
25. The Superintendent, Central Prison.
26. The Senior Marketing Officer.
27. The District Marketing Inspector.
28. The Assistant Controller, Local Audit Circle.
29. The Geologist, Galbarga Division.
30. The Special Deputy Commissioner for Inam Abolition.
31. The Assistant Labour Commissioner.
32. The District Labour Officer.
33. The Assistant Superintendent of Fisheries.
34. The Assistant Director of Publicity and Information.
35. The District Publicity Officer.
36. The Projects Evaluation Officer.
37. The Divisional Superintendent, Land Records.
38. The District Survey Officer.
39. The Assistant Director of Town Planning.
40. The District Treasury Officer.
41. The Excise Superintendent.

Divisional Commissioner

The Divisional Commissioner, who is in charge of the four districts of Gulbarga, Raichur, Bellary and Bidar, plays a prominent part in the general administration of the district not only with reference to revenue matters but also in respect of the activities of other departments as well. He is the link between the Government and the district authorities in respect of all developmental and public welfare activities. He has to tour in the districts and supervise the general activities of all development departments. In view of the numerous activities under the Five-Year Plans and the increasing tempo of community development, great importance is attached to the role of the Divisional Commissioner. He holds co-ordination meetings frequently with a view to stepping up the tempo of developmental works. He has to devote urgent attention to floods, famines, and scarcity conditions whenever they occur within his jurisdiction.

Central Government Offices

The Central Government have their own offices in the district for the collection of income-tax and excise duties, the administration of postal, telegraph and telephone services and the railways.

CHAPTER XI

REVENUE ADMINISTRATION

History of Assessment

MANU'S account of fiscal administration of ancient Hindu States gives a graphic description of land revenue system which formed the main source of the income of the Government. Land revenue was levied on the gross produce of all arable land, varying according to the soil and the labour required to cultivate it. In normal times, the share of the State varied between one-twelfth and one-sixth, but was liable to rise even to one-fourth in times of war and other exigencies. The land revenue was collected, not from individual cultivators but from the community represented by the headman. The aggregate harvest was collected into a common pool and the State's share was set apart by the headman before the general distribution. Between the village headman and the monarch, was a chain of civil officers and landlords of single villages to landlords of ten, 100 and 1,000 villages. The civil officers were responsible for collection of the revenue, for which they were remunerated by fees in kind, *i.e.*, by a portion of the king's share of the produce or by holding land free of revenue by virtue of their office. The polity of the period, particularly of the Rashtrakutas who ruled the present area of Gulbarga between eighth and tenth centuries envisaged certain fundamental characteristics in the Indian attitude to political organisation in early times. The people in those days did not entirely fall back on the State. The monarch was obliged to preserve the social fabric and to protect the country from internal commotions and external invasions and he received in return, the taxes paid by the public. The tax which was known as land revenue was a sixth part of the produce of the land. In the Deccan, there were the *Mahajanas* of villages who looked after the local administration under the stewardship of gaundas. The officers of Government paid frequent visits to villages. The local population in the villages had to supply draught bulls as also other facilities to the officers. In addition to the land revenue and the demands of the officers, the people had to pay several taxes, both direct and indirect. There were compulsory levies, both Central and local, as also taxes for

particular purposes, such as the maintenance of a tank, temple, feeding house, educational institution or hospital.

In the beginning of the Muslim administration, the State's share of the gross produce formerly demanded by Hindu kings was converted into *Khiraj* or tribute payable on land, though the share taken was greater than before. The then-existing agency of collection was also utilised. The rapid expansion of some of the Muslim kingdoms, however, made the collection of the revenue a difficult task and measures were undertaken for regulating the collections and securing a complete or partial commutation of the State's share of the produce into cash. The institutes of Timur embodied the first systematic attempt in this direction. Sher Shah (1540-55) took the next step, but did not rule long enough to give general effect to his new measures. The third and the most notable settlement was that of Todar Mal during the time of Akbar the Great. Under Todar Mal's initiative, the arable lands were carefully measured and then divided into four separate classes according to the fertility of the soil. The State's share which was fixed at one-third of the gross produce was commuted into cash with particular reference to the prices of the previous nineteen years. The commutation rate was originally applied to the actual produce of the year, but this practice was found to be administratively inconvenient. Settlements were therefore concluded on the basis of a ten-year average. This system involved the maintenance of an elaborate set of accounts and the employment of a host of tax-gatherers, who were the intermediaries between the cultivator and the Government. One of these was the *zamindar* who was unknown to the early Hindu system. Todar Mal's settlement continued in force without much alteration for nearly a century, but as the authority of the Central Government declined, a number of imposts known as *abwabs* were added by the provincial rulers.

Todar Mal's System

In the Hyderabad Karnatak area, the assessment was originally introduced on the basis of Todar Mal's revenue system and it was calculated on the quantity of the grain sown in a field or on its produce of which a certain share was taken by the Government as revenue. Under this levy, the share on dry crops was about one-fourth of the produce and on wet lands, the share varied from half to two-fifths. When the payment in kind was commuted to cash, the amount fixed became the revenue from the field. The revenue collections were made through contractors and in some cases, collections were done departmentally through *Talukdars* or *Naibs*. The unit of land determined by the Bahmani rulers and later by the Mughals was known as the *Koorgy*. A *Koorgy* of land was roughly estimated at four and a half acres. A piece of land on which could be sown three seers of jowar seeds by using six bullocks and three men in a day was known as *Koorgy*. The assessment on land was fixed according to the classification of the soil. Four distinct classes of land emerged as a result and these

were called (1) *Regar* (black cotton soil), (2) *Milwa* (black and red soil), (3) *Masab* (red soil) and (4) *Shore* (alkaline soil) The revenue demand was determined on the basis of a single *Koorgy*. The history of assessment of those days discloses that a *Koorgy* of the first class was assessed at rupees five to ten, the second from rupees three to rupees eight, the third from rupee one to rupees five, and the fourth from annas eight to rupees two. The assessment on wet lands depended on the supply of water. It varied from Rs. 20 to Rs. 150 per *Koorgy*. The land revenue had to be paid in cash in respect of all the dry cropped lands. Payment of assessment was always in kind in respect of paddy fields This system of payment in kind was known as the *batayi* system. As soon as the harvest was over, the share of the State was determined, which was sold on the spot. Usually the rates quoted in the sale were enhanced at the will of the revenue authorities. The *batayi* system was arbitrary and caused untold hardship to the cultivators The revenue was collected in four instalments. When the crop was ripe for harvest, the landowner was not allowed to reap it, till he had given a written agreement and produced security for the coming year's cutivation. This in brief is the history of land revenue assessment before the Asaf Jahi dynasty took over.

Next Stage.—In 1853 A.D., some reforms in the assessment pattern were ushered in, which changed the entire structure of revenue administration from one of absolute arbitrariness to that of orderliness. The entire cultivable land in the old Hyderabad area was roughly measured, converting the *Koorgy* unit into acres. The waste lands were not measured because of their vast extent. A *check bandi* of all the land was prepared, the fields being numbered and their situations marked in relation to the adjoining ones. The revenue officials for the first time rationalised the land revenue assessment on all cultivable lands according to the nature of the soil After the necessary measurement and marking of check boundaries, the *pawtee* book which disclosed the actual assessment was introduced. Each land-holder was in possession of this record, in which the area of his field and the assessment were recorded The assessment paid was noted in the *pawtee* book. The State guaranteed that no cultivator would be deprived of his possession unless he himself tendered his resignation. After all the formalities were settled, a "*Kowl*" (agreement) was granted to the land holders for a certain fixed period and a concord entered into, providing for any future enhancement of revenue if found justified. Various rules were framed for the cultivation of waste lands. Whenever waste lands were granted to the tillers, no rent was collected in the first year. In the subsequent year, only one-eighth of a rupee per acre was levied. In the third year, a quarter of a rupee per acre was levied. During the fourth year of cultivation, half a rupee per acre was collected. For the fifth and successive years, the assessment was levied in full. The land

revenue was collected in three instalments according to the nature of the crop. For dry land *kharif* crops, two annas were collected in November, six annas in December and eight annas in January. For *rabi* or late crops, the assessment was collected in January, February and March. At about the same time when these reforms were introduced, the system of giving *baluta* to the patels and the patwaris from the cultivators was abolished and instead a fixed sum called *Aya putti* was paid and this was collected at the rate of one anna per rupee on the land revenue. All the Inam lands which were in possession of patels and patwaris for services rendered by them were taken over by the State.

Zilla Bandi System

Nawab Sir Salar Jung I who was Prime Minister of the Hyderabad Dominions between 1853 and 1883, introduced many reforms in the revenue administration in order to rectify the errors that had crept in before. The Zilla Bandi system of revenue administration introduced by him put the system on a sound and scientific basis. The chief object of this new system was to improve the land revenue collection and the consolidation of the fiscal position of the Nizam's territories. The assessments were modified from time to time. The arable lands were measured, demarcated and registered and the fixed assessments were regulated according to *Bighas*. Each *Bigha* was equivalent to 3,600 square yards. The land-holders or cultivators were given proprietary possession of their holdings. Each cultivator was granted a *Kowl* for a period of three years. The annual assessment was fixed according to the average payment of the previous ten years. At the time of the Zilla Bandi reform, land revenue was derived from *raiyatwari* villages, leased lands, *paishkash*, *panmaqtas*, fruit trees and allied sources. The rate of assessment varied according to the type of land, such as dry, wet and garden. Gifts of land called *Inams* were also in existence. *Atiyat* was a conditional or unconditional gift of land bestowed by the Nizam on deserving subordinates in recognition of their services. This system of giving *jagirs* dates back to the days of the Mughals. With the downfall of the Mughal Empire after the death of Aurangzeb, there was utter chaos in the country and in the interest of safeguarding the peace and tranquillity in the country, Asaf Jah I initiated certain reforms. The first gift of land made by Asaf Jah dates back to 1729. During the 19th century Sir Salar Jung examined the condition of the *jagirs* and the *Inams* and organised a separate department called *Dariaft Inamat* for administering these lands.

Tenures

The *raiyatwari* system assumed prominence after the British overlordship of many parts of India. This was followed by other princely States for reasons of expediency. Under the *raiyatwari* system, all the arable lands belonged to the Government and the pattadar was deemed to be the proprietor or the registered occupant subject to payment of assessment. Alienations were

allowed and in such instances, the new occupant had to pay the assessment. At the beginning of the system, the accepted theory was that the *raiyatwari* land allowed no intermediary as existed in the gift lands, called tenancy. But in actual practice, the registered occupants had to go away from the land for their avocations. So their lands passed on to others by virtue of certain customs. The forms in which lands were actually held and worked under the *raiyatwari* system were classified as *pattadari*, *potpattadari*, *shikmidari* and *asami-shikmi*. Besides, there were other tenures in *Diwani* lands known as *panmasta*, *tahud* and *ijara*. *Diwani* or *Khalsa* lands were generally held on the *raiyatwari* tenure. The system of survey and settlement of the *raiyatwari* lands and the principles of land revenue administration were clearly laid down in the Hyderabad Land Revenue Act of 1907 which was formulated on the same lines as the Bombay Land Revenue Code V of 1879. Under the *raiyatwari* system, which is prevalent in the Gulbarga district, each field is considered a holding, technically called a survey number. The land-holder is called the registered occupant or *pattadar* or *khatedar*. The right of occupancy depended on the regular payment of assessment by the *pattadar*. It is necessary here to give a short description of the various tenures in the *raiyatwari* tracts of the district.

Pattadari is a simple occupancy where the occupant cultivates the land personally or through hired labour.

Pot-pattadari is a tenure where two or more cultivators hold a joint *patta*. The *pattadar* in the case of *pot-pattadari* can neither evict the *pot-pattadar* nor enhance the assessment payable by him.

Shikmidari is a tenure where the occupant makes over the land to actual cultivators on specified terms. Such cultivators who enter into an agreement with the superior landlord are known as *Shikmidars* and they cannot be evicted as long as they carry out the terms of their agreement with the registered occupant.

Asami-Shikmis are tenures-at-will. These were protected under a law passed in 1944.

Pan-Masta is a tenure by contract in which lands were given to the holders on a fixed quit rent without any liability of enhancement.

Tahud or *Sarbasta* is a peculiar tenure. Before the introduction of the *raiyatwari* system, the land revenue of the State together with certain other cesses used to be charged out to contractors. This system came to be known as *Tahud*. The

tahud or *sarbasta* tenure was a lease for a specific period. Sir Salar Jung I abolished this tenure.

Ijara tenure was introduced by Sir Salar Jung I with a view to re-populating deserted villages and bringing under cultivation large tracts of cultivable land which were lying waste. Under this tenure, the land was assessed at cheaper rate subject to progressive increase till full assessment was reached. The period of lease granted for a whole waste village was for a term of 30 or 40 years.

Jagirs

In contrast with the Diwani lands, there were, in the district, *jagirs* which were free land grants of one or more villages given as a reward for some conspicuous service rendered or for maintaining the status and dignity of the grantee. This *jagir* tenure was classified under different heads, *viz., Paigah* or *Jamait jagirs, Al-tamgha jagirs, Zat jagirs, Tankha jagirs, Mashrooti jagirs* and *Madad Meash jagirs*. *Paigah* jagirs were originally assigned by the then ruler, His Highness Nizam Ali Khan Bahadur, to Abdul Khair Khan for the maintenance of troops known as His Highness' household troops and hence they were designated *Paigah jagirs*, the word 'paigah' meaning stables. These jagirs were extensive in character. *Al-tamgha jagirs* were revenue-free grants made under the royal seal. This was a perpetual and hereditary grant. *Zat jagirs* were grants of large areas of land for the maintenance of the grantee without any stipulation of services. *Tankha jagirs* as the name implies were grants of land made to meet the salaries due to the grantee for services rendered. *Mashrooti jagirs* were granted for the performance of some definite service, religious, civil or military, and continued only so long as the conditions of the grant were fulfilled. *Madad Meash jagirs* were granted either for the maintenance of the recipient or as a supplement to his other means of livelihood. In addition to these jagirs, there were the *Sarf-e-khas* lands which were the sole property of the Nizam, the revenue of which was a contribution to his privy purse. There were also *Inams* called minor *inams*. An *Inam* holding was a grant of land in which the State had alienated its right to the land revenue. *Inam* lands were scattered in many of the villages. In some cases, the whole village belonged to the *Inamdar*.

It is necessary here to mention that the status of jagirdars in the old Hyderabad State was quite different from that of the zamindars in the permanently settled areas. It has been observed by the Jagir Commission of 1947 that "the Jagirdars in Hyderabad do not have any right to the soil. They are entitled only to the revenues". In addition to collecting land revenue of a particular tract of land assigned in their favour, the jagirdars had jurisdiction over excise, forests and fisheries within their jagirs. Many of the jagirdars were exercising judicial and police powers as well. These powers were gradually curtailed and finally

abolished in 1947 as a first step towards implementation of the recommendations of the Jagir Commission of 1947. Although the jagirdars had been collecting land revenue through their appointed officers and agents ever since the grant of such jagirs, yet there was no express legal sanction in respect of their powers for the recovery of land revenue. Their authority to exercise powers of revenue recovery was challenged by the cultivators and questioned in law courts. This position was, however, regularised by the enforcement of the Jagirs Revenue Recovery Regulation in 1935. According to this regulation, the jagirdars and jagir officers were empowered to exercise powers of revenue recovery, subject to certain safeguards. At one time in Hyderabad, more than one-third of the area of the State was outside the control of the Government for purposes of land revenue administration. The standard of revenue administration in the alienated areas was far from satisfactory. This state of affairs continued to exist till 1949, when all the *Sarf-e-khas* lands were merged in *Diwani* lands. In the same year, the administration of all the *jagir* and *maqta* villages was taken over by the State. According to the Abolition of Jagirs Regulation of 1949, which came into force on the 15th August 1949, the Government took over all jagirs and placed them under a Jagir Administrator. The taking over of the administration of jagirs was indeed a bold step in the right direction. The abolition of vested interests and intermediaries between the Government and the cultivator made the problem of land tenures comparatively simple.

Original Settlement

Before the introduction of the Cadastral Survey of the area in 1875, several drawbacks were noticed in the pattern of revenue administration, and there was popular discontent which demanded immediate rearrangement. The Government of the day went into the whole question and a complete Cadastral Survey on the Bombay pattern was ordered, which envisaged direct dealing with each cultivating individual, abolishing thereby the old system of middlemen proprietors of the soil. The method of survey then adopted was that of chain and cross staff. From this base line, off-sets were measured to the several bends of the lands, forming triangles and trapeziums. Thus, the whole area was worked out into acres and guntas with the preparation of a village map. In the process of original settlement, the soil classification took a prominent part. In 1878, soil classification work in Gulbarga, Raichur and Bidar was taken up on the Bombay pattern. The grades of soil classification were reduced from ten separate classes in Bombay to seven in Gulbarga. Thus, the relative value of the soil was arrived at after taking into account all the defects noticed in the soil. The assessment was calculated according to the standard rates fixed by the Government.

The most striking feature of soils is their variety. Their colour depth and physical and chemical properties varied from

village to village and from field to field. They responded to varying conditions of climate, rainfall, irrigation, manuring and other agricultural operations in many different ways, so much so that at first sight, it seemed impossible to make any general statement regarding their fertility. Experts have, however, been able to define two broad soil types and to account for their formation, structure, texture, colour or chemical properties and the resulting productive values. These two types are (1) black cotton soils and (2) red earth or chalkas. Locally, a number of varieties of both these soils are distinguished by the raiyats and a very intelligent use made of typical characteristics of each of them, but their description would be out of the purview of this chapter. Another difficulty which arose in the grouping of soils was that a type of soil had no definite boundaries. No demarcating line can be drawn to distinguish between two soils. What happens is that one soil type usually gives way gradually to another and there is a wide transition zone between a well-defined soil type and its neighbour. Black cotton and red earths are accordingly found side by side over wide areas of the district. For classification of soils for land revenue assessment purposes, two methods were used in the western and eastern districts of the old Hyderabad State. In the western districts, particularly in the Gulbarga district, both the black cotton and red soils were classified with reference to their depth. The fertility of a soil being chiefly dependent on its power of imbibing and retaining moisture and as this quality is mainly affected by depth, the latter peculiarity was used in the formation of scales for classification.

Classification of soils

It is found by experience that a greater depth than one-and-three-fourths cubits or above three feet does not affect to any appreciable extent the fertility of soils and this depth was therefore adopted as maximum for both black and red soils. A depth of one-and-three-fourths cubits or more for black cotton soils would place it as first grade soil with classification of sixteen annas in the *annawari* classification. Depth of one-and-a-half cubits or more would mean second class. This class is further lowered if the soil is red or has any faults, *i.e.*, deteriorating influence or other circumstances which diminish fertility. In the methods employed, observations for finding the depth of the soil or the proportion of clay were made in a number of compartments (Khastas) in each field. Anna value for each portion of the field was determined and from it, the resulting average classification for the entire field was arrived at. The results of observations made in each portion of the field were recorded in the field book. These entries would give for each compartment its type of soil, depth and faults, if any. But the field may in some cases contain a few compartments of black soil, the remaining being of red soil. The settlement records would not in such cases exactly show whether the field was a black cotton or a *chalka* land. Village records do not contain separate lists of black cotton or red lands. Preparation of such lists would

be a lengthy and cumbersome process. Moreover, the crop experiment results or other statistics of areas sown or yields per acre are not available separately for black cotton and red soils. The colour of the soil is, however, reflected in the classification scale itself. The obvious conclusion is that fertility or productivity of the soils is only partially reduced because of the change in the colour. For example, a red soil with a depth of one-and-a-half cubits would be as fertile as a black cotton land with a depth of one-and-a-quarter cubits. The same gradation was reflected in the land revenue assessment also.

Black cotton soils were not assessed separately or at higher rates than red soils of equivalent soil classification. The rate of assessment for a particular soil value does not change because of the colour of the soil. The question therefore is whether for any given area having both the types of soils, it is possible to determine the gross produce separately for black cotton and *chalka* soils. Even if it were possible, the opinion is that such differentiation is not necessary as the reduction in fertility due to the change in colour is automatically reflected through the lowering of the soil class by one. The implied presumption that the gross produce from a black cotton soil of a twelve annas classification would be equal to the produce from red soil of equal classifition is quite correct, because *chalka* land should have more depth or a more favourable proportion of clay than the black cotton soil. This argument is well supported by a paragraph in Davidson's report written in 1840 which says "On many occasions, the arrangement according to colour cannot be preserved without sacrificing the classification according to value. There are soils, essentially black, which from deficiency in depth or the presence of deteriorating qualities, have to be entered in the reds and even in the gravelly, while some reds are so superior in texture and fertility as to intrude into the blacks. On such occasions, it is incumbent on the classifier to make a note explaining the apparent incongruity of a red soil being entered as a black and a black soil as a red or a gravelly. Were these instances of rare occurrence, it would be of little importance but they are and must be so frequent as in a great measure to vitiate the classification according to colour and under these circumstances, I think it would be much better to do away with a part of the system which can lead to ambiguity and class the soils solely with reference to their values ".

At this stage, it is relevant to see how *annavari* scales of soil classification were fixed and how far they could be used as criteria to fix separate holdings for the so-called first class (above 0-8-0).

Annawari Scales of soil classification :—

Soil Class	*Black Soils (Depth)*	*Red Soils (Depth)*	*Comparative soil value in annas*
1	1¾ Cubits or more ..		16
2	1½ do ..	1¾ Cubits or more ..	15
3	1¼ do	1½ do ..	14
4	1 do ..	1¼ do	11
5	¾ do ..	1 do ..	8
6	½ do ..	¾ do ..	5
7	¼ do ..	½ do ..	3

These anna values were further reduced because of the existence of one or more faults in the soils. For black soils, faults allowed were existence of lime, sand, sloping surfaces, liability of being swept by running water, dampness and *karal*. Existence of stones or sand was not considered as faults for *chalka* soils and of sand and dampness for wet lands. A glance at the table given above would show that out of the seven classes of soil, the middle or fourth class in Gulbarga would be of eleven annas. In practice, rocky and *barad* lands were classed in the lowest group at three annas and lands of five annas or lower classification were not usually sown with crops.

In 1883.—After careful classification of fields on soil values, the settlement of the area was taken up. In 1883, when the original settlement was under way, the district was reorganised for the first time. The taluks of Shorapur and Shahapur which were *Sarf-e-khas* taluks were included in the Gulbarga district. The original settlement was first completed in Shahapur and Shorapur taluks and then in Gulbarga, Chincholi, Jevargi, Yadgir and Seram taluks. The years in which the original settlement was taken up in respect of all the taluks are noted below.

Gulbarga	..	1889
Afzalpur	..	1883
Aland	..	1883
Chittapur	..	1888
Chincholi	..	1889
Yadgir	..	1891
Seram	..	1891
Jevargi	..	1891
Shahapur	..	1889
Shorapur	..	1888

According to the settlement papers, a final report was despatched from the Superintendent, Survey and Settlement, Southern Division of Hyderabad State, on 11th December 1886 to the Settlement Commissioner formulating proposals in respect of the Mahagaon taluk (later merged in Gulbarga taluk). The boundary of this taluk was fixed and at the time of the settlement it consisted of 119 villages of which 95 were Government villages. *Paigah jagirs* existed to the north and east of the taluk and towards south, the Gulbarga taluk was itself a boundary. As several jagir villages intervened, the shape of this taluk was irregular. Out of a total area of 1,71,363 acres, the dry lands accounted for 1,68,319 acres. The wet and garden lands were not much. The old assessment for the entire taluk was Rs. 1,71,363 and this was reduced to Rs. 1,55,720 after fully assessing the agricultural economic pattern of the taluk.

Along with the settlement of the Mahagaon taluk, the settlement of the Chincholi taluk was also taken up and completed by January 1886. The taluk then consisted of 99 villages, out of which 62 were *Khalsa* villages. The old assessment which stood at Rs. 1,01,815 was reduced to Rs. 96,673.

The next taluk which became due for original settlement was the Gulbarga taluk, which in 1886, had an area of 3,57,850 acres. Out of this total area, 2,77,907 acres were cultivated and 15,939 acres comprised the Inam area. At the time of the original settlement, the assessment of the taluk was Rs. 2,43,978. This was raised to Rs. 2,59,304.

In a similar manner, the old Andola taluk (now called Jevargi) was settled in 1891. The old assessment at the time of the original settlement was Rs. 1,47,839. This was increased to Rs. 1,55,206.

In the other taluks, Seram and Kodangal, the assessment was fixed at Rs. 2,59,536 and Rs. 1,50,239, respectively. In 1873, the district had only six taluks. In 1883, Shorapur and Shahapur taluks were added.

Revision Settlement.

Usually the period of a revenue settlement was 30 years. But in respect of Gulbarga, since several boundary adjustments of several taluks were effected, the revision settlement commenced in 1915, originating from Seram taluk This work was carried on upto 1928. The system of revision was based entirely on the Bombay pattern. A partial examination of the previous survey numbers was undertaken and errors up to five per cent were normally allowed. No reclassification was done during the revision. All the changes that had taken place, *viz.*, new irrigation sources, railway lines, road communications and lands assigned on *patta*, were noticed at the time of the revision and accordingly the rates were altered. The dry rates were fixed from Rs. 1-8-0 to

Rs. 2-12-0, while the wet varied from Rs. 12 to Rs. 14. The garden rates were arrived at after close scrutiny and were fixed from Rs. 5 to Rs. 6. *Akar* work (Barsath) under the revision settlement was carried out, having regard to the details in the original settlement.

The following table indicates the classification and the money rates according to the revision settlement :—

Taluk	*Nature of Crop*	*Money Rates*			*Area (acres)*	*Amount assessed*
		Rs.	a.	p.		Rs
Seram ..	Dry ..	2	4	0	1,74,628	2,48,926
	Wet ..	12	0	0	2,925	23,637
	Garden ..	12	0	0	459	3,465
	Do	6	0	0	804	3,708
	Total ..				1,78,816	2,79,736
Gulbarga ..	Dry ..	2	8	0	3,84,548	4,48,568
	Do	2	0	0	76,173	76,316
	Wet ..	12	0	0	250	2,391
	Garden ..	12	0	0	606	4,809
	Do	6	0	0	4,206	19,388
	Total ..				4,65,783	5,51,472
Chincholi ..	Dry ..	2	8	0	1,46,372	2,07,119
	Wet ..	15	0	0	941	13,307
	Do	12	0	0	112	1,007
	Garden ..	15	0	0	21	180
	Do	12	0	0	62	489
	Do	7	8	0	242	1,263
	Do	6	0	0	536	2,382
	Total ..				1,48,286	2,25,747
Yadgir .	Dry ..	2	0	0	2,58,579	2,30,534
	Wet ..	15	0	0	3,009	35,783
	Do	12	0	0	8,638	92,180
	Garden ..	15	0	0	77	570
	Do	12	0	0	145	942
	Do	7	8	0	317	1,408
	Do	6	0	0	789	3,094
	Total ..				2,71,554	3,64,511

1	2	3	4	5
Andola (Jevargi)	Dry ..	2 0 0	1,20,733	1,51,596
	Do	1 12 0	·1,85,283	1,47,839
	Wet ..	8 0 0	26	136
	Garden ..	8 0 0	73	360
	Do	4 0 0	830	2,603
	Total ..		3,06,945	3,02,534
Shorapur ..	Dry ..	1 12 0	Not available	2,12,192
	Do	1 8 0	do	..
	Wet ..	10 0 0	..	10,474
	Garden ..	..	..	3,266
	Total ..		..	2,25,932
Shahapur ..	Dry ..	1 12 0	Not available	2,26,382
	Do	1 8 0	do	..
	Wet .	10 0 0	..	19,210
	Garden .	..	..	5,238
	Total ..		..	2,50,830

Land Revenue Collections

The assessed land revenue in the district was recovered by the revenue authorities in two instalments. The collections in the area were known as *Kist*. The first instalment was known as the *Kharif Kist* and was ordinarily collected from 1st to 21st January every year. The first instalment had to be paid in full allowing of no arrears The subsequent instalment known as the *Rabi Kist* was recovered from 1st April onwards. The collections are made by the Tahsildar, Revenue Inspector, *Patwari* and *Patel*. The *Patwari* sits with the *Patel* in the village *Chavadi* and collects land revenue according to the settlement demand. The collections made each day are accounted for and handed over to the *Patel* for safe custody. When the sum exceeds the prescribed amount it is sent to the taluk treasury. The revenue recovery work is generally supervised by the Deputy Commissioner, Assistant Commissioner of the Sub-Division and the Tahsildar. If the revenue is not forthcoming, coercive steps are taken under the Code*. The total demand for 1961-62 was Rs. 38,19,268-68 and it rose up to Rs. 66,28,453-15 during 1964-65. A statement showing the total demand, collection and the balance for 1964-65 is appended at the end of the chapter.

Changes in 1950: Jagirs were totally abolished in 1950, when four more taluks, *viz.*, Afzalpur, Aland, Chittapur and Tandur were added to the already existing eight taluks. In 1956, consequent on the States' Reorganisation, Tandur and Kodangal

*The Hyderabad Land Revenue Code has been replaced by the Mysore Land Revenue Act, 1964.

taluks were transferred to Andhra Pradesh, leaving the present Gulbarga district with ten taluks. At the time of the abolition of jagirs, the number of *Diwani* and *Paigah* villages were as follows :—

Taluk		*Diwani villages*	*Paigah villages*
Gulbarga	..	116	34
Afzalpur	..	10	80
Aland	..	46	83
Chittapur	..	33	88
Chincholi	..	92	53
Yadgir	..	118	24
Seram	..	54	57
Jevargi	..	126	32
Shahapur	..	121	38
Shorapur	..	144	43

System of Survey

The present system of survey in the district is the Cadastral Survey system or the cross staff measurement. The surveyor who is engaged in this task chooses a particular old survey number and begins his work fixing a base line for his measurement. From this base line, he measures the survey numbers, having due regard to the old survey numbers. The new measurements thus taken will then be transferred to a rough sketch on paper, with all the detailed measurements of the holding. In the system that is prevailing in the area, various records are maintained. The *pucca* book, as it is called, is an important document wherein the details of measurements relating to the *Tippana* are entered. The *Tippana* book contains all survey numbers of the village. There is a *Tippana* book for each village in the area. In the *pucca* book, one can find out the final figures of each survey number. All triangular plots, rectangular plots, length and breadth, total acres and guntas are found in the *pucca* book. The other book which is equally important is the classification book—*prathi* book, in which the nature of the land, wet, dry or *bagayat*, first sort or second sort and similar details are entered.

During 1952-53, a survey was proposed to be conducted for the settlement of unsurveyed ex-jagir villages. But due to lack of adequate staff, this work was not proceeded with. Even the revision settlement of *Diwani* taluks was held over. The State Government sanctioned the revision operations of the overdue *Diwani* taluks under a curtailed process system. In this system, the unnecessary process of regular revision survey was done away with. Thus, all the overdue taluks in Gulbarga district were surveyed and the work was completed. In 1954, a Settlement Committee was formed by the Hyderabad State Government in order to examine the scope of enhancing the land revenue without the long process of revision settlement. This committee proposed

that the usual process of working out the assessment rates should not be adopted, but instead the agronomic conditions of the tract should be taken into consideration to fix any upward rates of assessment. In view of this recommendation of the committee senior and experienced officers were posted to conduct the agronomic survey and to submit a report. In Gulbarga, this was completed but due to political changes consequent on the States' reorganisation, the proposals so submitted were not approved.

Recent Settlements

As the period of thirty years was over since the taluks were settled last, the Government of Mysore ordered a fresh revision of the entire district. For this purpose, the district was divided into two zones. Zone I—comprising the taluks of Gulbarga, Afzalpur, Aland, Chittapur and Chincholi and Zone II comprising Seram, Yadgir, Shahapur, Shorapur and Jevargi taluks. The settlement officer sent up his proposals for revision of rates in respect of Zone I in 1961 and in respect of Zone II in 1963. While Zone I was divided into five groups for purposes of revision, Zone II was divided into seven groups and the standard rates for each of these groups were arrived at on the basis of the average yield of principal crops on not less than 66 per cent of the gross cropped area obtained from 15 per cent of the villages designated as "representative villages" and the average price during the five-year period from 1955 to 1960 for each of the crops at the concerned taluk markets, the standard rate being calculated at 1/16th of the cash value of the average gross yield. The following are the particulars of rates for wet, dry and garden lands, made applicable from 1st July 1965 :—

			Dry land	*Wet land*	*Garden land*	*Plantation land*
				Zone I		
			Rs. P.	Rs. P.	Rs. P.	
Group No.	I	..	2—91	9—60	2—91	.
	II	..	2—10	9—60	2—10	..
	III	.	2—04	9—60	2—04	..
	IV	.	2—04	9—60	2—04	..
	V	.	1—82	9—60	1—82	..
				Zone II		
Group No	I		2—98	11—84	2—97	..
	II	.	2—62	11—84	2—62	..
	III	..	1—93	11—84	1—93	..
	IV	.	1—88	8—53	1—88	.
	V	.	1—63	8—53	1—63	..
	VI	.	1—24	9—35	1—24	..
	VII	..	1—20	9—35	1—20	..

Record of Rights

The record of rights work was first taken up under the Record of Rights Act, 1346 Fasli, adopting the Bombay system. Immediately after the police action in Hyderabad in 1948, the State

Government repealed the Record of Rights Act of 1346 Fasli and replaced it by the Hyderabad Record of Rights Regulation, 1358 Fasli, basing the system on the Mysore pattern. In 1954, under the directions of the Central Government, the census of holdings of lands was taken up and the record of rights and liabilities introduced. With the completion of the record of rights work, the apportionment of assessment became necessary. The first round of *Hissa* Survey was taken up in 1957, just after the States' reorganisation. The total number of *Hissas* to be measured in Gulbarga district was 4,13,026. There were 28 jagir villages in the Gulbarga division, wherein the survey, classification and settlement records were not available, since they were not received from the concerned jagirdars after the abolition of the jagirs. According to the instructions of the Commissioner for Settlement and Land Records, an officer was sent to Hyderabad for getting the survey records. But as no records were available concerning these jagir villages, new proposals were submitted for the introduction of survey and settlement in these villages. The work was taken up and was in progress (1965).

LAND REFORMS

Land-lord and Tenant Relationship

Although the *raiyatwari* tenure did not originally contemplate or recognise the existence of any intermediary between the Government and the registered occupant, yet on account of the unrestricted right of transfer which was allowed to the occupant or the *pattadar*, a class of non-cultivating owners came into existence. These non-cultivating owners leased their land to tenants and became rent-receivers. This development under the *raiyatwari* system was noticed by the Famine Commission in 1879. In paragraph 32 of their report, they have observed that "In consequence of the tendency on the part of those who are recorded as raiyats to sublet their lands or part of their holdings and to live on the difference between the rent they receive and the revenue they pay to the Government, a considerable class of subordinate tenants is growing up. These subordinates are not recorded or recognised in the State registers, but the existence of such a class involves the same evils as are noticed elsewhere. We think that the question should be submitted to the consideration of the local Governments whether it is contemplated under the revenue settlement that raiyats should be permitted to sublet their lands and if so whether measures should not be taken for recognising the status of such tenants and recording the area they hold, the rent they pay and the conditions of their tenure".

Absentee landlordism and tenancy farming had their origin in the latter half of the 19th century. It was during this period that for a variety of reasons, national and international, land became for the first time a commodity of value to be bought and sold in the market as any other commercial commodity. By reason of the peculiar security that land as property affords, it came to possess

a value greatly inflated and out of all proportion to its yielding capacity. Possession of land has often been a passport for prestige and status in society. As a cumulative effect of all the above factors, people from all walks of life began acquiring land, not for purposes of cultivation by themselves, but as a source of business or commercial investment. In course of time, this tendency became more and more pronounced as a result of which lands increasingly passed out of the hands of owner-cultivators into the hands of non-cultivating classes like the money-lenders and others who lived mostly away from the land and whose sole interest in the land was the amount of rent they could get by letting it to others. As years passed, the dissociation between ownership and the cultivation of land became more and more marked and the number of cultivating *pattadars* began to decrease.

Non-Diwani areas

Tenancy in the non-Diwani areas of the old Hyderabad State had a different history and came about in three different ways—(1) by the unauthorised claims of the jagirdar to a right in the land whereby he sought to treat the cultivators in jagir areas as mere tenants, (2) by the jagirdar leasing his lands to others and (3) by the occupants in the jagir area sub-letting their lands to others. Some jagirdars were also in the habit of insisting upon the payment of "*nazarana*" or premium in the shape of one or two years' assessment before they accorded *pattadari* rights to old cultivators. It was found that some jagirdars, while they allowed freely *pattadari* rights to old cultivators, did not permit the *pattadars* to sell or mortgage the holdings without their permission. This permission was sometimes granted on the *pattadar* paying a premium. There were also cases where the holders of the alienated villages, after giving *pattadari* rights to cultivators on payment of a premium, deprived them of these rights later. Conditions in jagir villages where survey and settlement had not been carried out were still worse. The jagirdar called himself a *pattadar* of many fields in the villages, even old cultivators being entered as his *kouldars*. These people were not allowed to sell lands cultivated by them. The State from time to time had to intervene to make the position clear in jagir areas and to safeguard the rights of cultivating occupants. With a view to putting an end to the controversy in respect of right to the land created by the unauthorised claims of the jagirdars, the Government took power to compulsorily introduce survey and settlement operations in the jagir areas. Finally, the Government, by an amending Act, incorporated certain modifications in the Land Revenue Code which defined the respective rights of jagirdars and of cultivators under them. According to the Hyderabad Land Revenue Code, *pattadar* was defined as the person who is directly responsible to the Government for payment of land revenue and whose name had been entered as such in Government records whether he was personally in possession of the holding or through his tenant.

In the case of non-Diwani lands, *pattadar* was defined as the person who was directly responsible to the jagirdar for payment of land revenue, whether his name had or had not been entered as such in the jagir records. As time passed, the tenancy problem became complicated because of alienated villages, where even hereditary cultivators were sometimes considered tenants-at-will. The question had become more urgent on account of the large volume of agricultural indebtedness in villages. Thereupon, the State Government appointed a Tenancy Committee to investigate the conditions of tenants. This Committee arrived at the conclusion that one-third of the net yield after deducting the cost of cultivation, weeding and harvesting, remained with the tenant and two-thirds or more went to the *pattadar*. Out of the *pattadar's* two-thirds net profit half or less went towards assessment. Thus on a rough calculation, after deducting expenses from the gross yield, cost of cultivation, manuring, weeding and harvesting, the net income was divided into three equal parts among the *pattadar*, the tenant and the Government. The Tenancy Committee came to the conclusion that early steps should be taken to put the tenants on a secure basis. This finding of the committee set the Government thinking in terms of comprehensive agrarian reforms.

Land Tenures

In this context, it is necessary to define what land tenure means. Land tenure is nothing but the manner in which land is held. It is the system of rights and obligations of individuals owning or cultivating the land *vis-a-vis* the State or among themselves. Land tenure policies, therefore, deal with the conditions under which people should own, work and live on the land. Whatever the type of farming may be, the tenure policies govern the way in which economic opportunities, managerial responsibilities and farm income are distributed among the people. The process of abolition of intermediaries in Hyderabad started with the merger of *Sarf-e-Khas*, *i.e.*, Nizam's own estates, in February 1949 and ended with the abolition of all the jagirs, comprising about one-third of the total area of the State. *Raiyatwari* tenure now prevails throughout the area. The raiyat or the land-holder holds his land directly from the Government. In theory, the State is the owner and overlord of all land. Private rights are recognised to the extent they are granted by the State. In actual practice, however, the claim of overlordship of the State does not detract materially from the position of the landholders. The land-holder is recognised as an occupant. He has the right to use, transfer, sell, mortgage or otherwise dispose of the land. He can raise any crops and build a farm house or a cattle-shed. He has a right to relinquish any field at his option. He can thus contract his holding by resignation or transfer, or extend it by purchasing new land. He can lease a portion or the whole of his holding on a rent agreed upon with the tenant.

Occupancy rights are subject only to the prompt payment of the land revenue assessment.

All land is liable to the payment of land revenue. The assessment is a charge upon the crop. Every holder is individually responsible for its payment. The assessment is fixed for a period of 20 to 30 years and is periodically revised under a revision settlement. *Pattadars, Shikmidars, Hissadars* and *Kabjidars* are not in fact different types of tenure-holders. They are all *raiyatwari* land-holders and the difference lies only in the nature and degree of recognition of their rights in the official records. They are equally entitled to occupancy and other privileges attached to it. The grades of recognition in official records are in many cases the result of the time-lag between the acquisition of a right and its registry in official records. These grades of proprietary rights continued till the preparation of the record of rights. The *raiyatwari* tenure did not originally envisage the land-holder as a non-cultivating owner or a mere rent-receiver. But because of the saleable or mortgageable character of the raiyat's interest, in course of time, a class of non-cultivating owners came into existence. With the dissociation of ownership and cultivation of land and the growth of tenancy system arose problems of adjustments between tenant-landlord interests. The increase in the number of tenancies, the passing of land into the hands of non-cultivating classes, deterioration of agriculture and the excessive competition among tenants for land, leading to growth of rent rates, gradually created a situation in *raiyatwari* areas which had to be met by tenancy legislation on lines similar to those adopted in zamindari areas.

Tenancy Regulations

In the wake of changes brought about in the social and political structure of the society, attempts to regulate tenancy were made in all parts of India, and Hyderabad, which included the Gulbarga district prior to the States' reorganisation, was not an exception to it. Several regulations were enacted and, in the course of their implementation, it was found to bristle with innumerable difficulties. It became clear after these attempts made to reform the land tenure system that the objectives of reform, so far as they related to the problems of absentee landlordism and tenancy, should be thoroughly re-examined and reformulated. A new method of approach to the question was urgently called for. Experts in the field found that future legislation should be curative and not palliative as it was before. Any amount of tenancy legislation, so long as the cause of tenancy remained, would deny the real security of tenure to the cultivator. In other words, it was felt that peasants who actually till the soil should be the owners. It was visualised that a new class of peasant proprietors should manage the land and produce from it abundant food. The main theme of the agrarian reforms was to eliminate all intermediaries between the cultivator and the Government.

Absentee landlordism was found more as a hindrance than a fillip and it was decided to do away with it. The Agrarian Reforms Committee (1949) in its report emphasised the point in these words: "So long as the dissociation of or divorce between ownership of land and the cultivation of it, resulting in the stratification of the society into two classes, landlords and tenants with ever-conflicting interests, is there, there can never be the atmosphere of peace and security to the cultivator. The objective of any further reform measures should therefore be the elimination of absentee landlordism and tenancy by making ownership of land and cultivation of it coincide with each other".

Public opinion in other parts of India gave ample strength to the idea that there could never be real security of tenure to the tenant or real incentive to him for efficient cultivation of land so long as the ownership of the land did not reside in him, and therefore the tenancy problems should be attempted to be solved by the elimination of all intermediary interests in land between the cultivator and the Government. Based on the experience of the various Tenancy Acts, the opinion in India veered round to the view that any measure of reforms in relation to tenancy should no longer seek to regulate the tenancy system by conferring some rights or further rights on the tenants but should be directed towards providing facilities to the tenant to become the owner of the land he cultivates, by purchase at a price deemed reasonable by the State. This reoriented objective of reform in respect of the solution of the tenancy problem is reflected in the views expressed by almost all the committees which have in the recent past investigated into the land problem in various States in India, beginning with the Bengal Land Revenue Committee of 1940. The National Planning Commission also came to the same conclusion to abolish intermediaries at an early date.

Earlier Measures

The first step taken in the old Hyderabad State in this direction was the appointment of a Tenancy Committee and the enactment of the Hyderabad Asami Shikmis Act of 1945. These measures taken in proper time gave fixity of tenure to all the new tenants for a period of ten years and empowered the Government to fix maximum rates of rent. A class of tenants was declared as protected and granted permanency of tenure subject only to the payment of lawful rent. The provisions of this Act were not fully implemented to derive the ultimate objective. The 1933 regulation had been enacted for preventing agricultural land from passing into the hands of money-lenders and others. In giving effect to this new piece of legislation, a special officer was appointed to conduct a detailed survey of agricultural indebtedness. One of his findings was that "people from all walks of life began acquiring land, not for purposes of cultivation by themselves but as a source of business or commercial investment". The Government then enforced the Prevention of Agricultural Land Alienation Act of

1939. This new legislation closely resembled the Punjab Land Alienation Act of 1900. Land transfers were prevented unless the transferee belonged to the class of agriculturists as defined in the Act and land with an assessment of Rs. 50 at least was left with the transferer. Those holding land with an assessment of more than Rs. 500 were not deemed to be agriculturists. The appointment of an Agrarian Reforms Committee in 1949 under the chairmanship of Shri N. Madhava Rao, retired Dewan of Mysore, was another landmark in the history of land reforms in Hyderabad. On the basis of its recommendations, the Government enacted the Hyderabad Tenancy and Agricultural Lands Act on 10th June 1950. The main objectives of this Act were the improvement of the status of tenants, the limitation of the size of holdings, abolition of absentee landlordism and preservation of land in the hands of genuine agriculturists. The minimum area of land which would enable a cultivator to maintain an average family of five persons including himself in reasonable comfort was defined as an economic holding and no person who held more than five times the size of an economic holding was allowed to acquire more land.

The Hyderabad Tenancy and Agricultural Lands Act of 1950 imposed some restrictions on the transfer of ownership rights enjoyed under the *raiyatwari* tenure. The right of leasing out the land was also restricted as well as the rent to be collected from tenants. Sub-letting was prohibited and payment of rent in time was an important condition for continuance of tenancy rights. Tenancy of ordinary tenants was guaranteed for ten years and eviction without due process of law was prohibited. The Act declared all tenants who cultivated the land continuously for six years within the prescribed period as protected tenants and conferred special rights and privileges upon them on easy terms. It was also made clear in the statute that no land-owner could terminate the tenancy of a protected tenant who was for the time being a member of the co-operative farming society. The Act laid down that no permanent alienation and no other transfer of agricultural land should be valid unless it was made with the previous sanction of the District Collector. In short, restrictions were placed on future acquisitions of land and a ceiling was fixed for the existing land-holdings and the State Government was empowered to assume management of land under a land-owner in excess of the ceiling. Care was taken to see that lands were efficiently cultivated and managed. The most important of the rights conferred on the protected tenant was the one to purchase the land-holder's interests in the land. He could make an offer to the landholder, stating the price he was prepared to pay for the landholder's interest up to 15 times for dry lands or eight times for wet lands irrigated by wells and six times for wet lands irrigated by other sources, of the rent payable by him. If the offer was not accepted, the protected tenant had the choice to apply to the tribunal for the determination of the reasonable price of the land. The right of

the protected tenant was subject to certain conditions. If he did not possess any land of his own, he could purchase only to the extent of a family holding. If he already held land, he could purchase only so much as would make the total land possessed by him after the transaction equal to the area of a family holding. A tenant holding land in 1950 was deemed to be a protected tenant if no such person was on the land, but the privileges of protected tenancy did not extend to tenancies created after 1950. The majority of tenants holding lands on lease from substantial holders in 1954 were found to lack protection under the law, because they were ordinary tenants to whom land was leased out by land-holders in order to circumvent the effect of the land reforms legislation. The Tenancy Act was therefore amended under which ordinary tenants of land-holders, whose holding including those under tenants exceeded three family holdings, were declared as protected tenants.

The process of voluntary purchase of lands by the protected tenant was, however, not very brisk due to a variety of reasons. Although, according to tenancy records, the number of protected tenants in the whole of the old Hyderabad State was 6,30,000, only 13,000 of them purchased 1,41,000 acres up to the end of 1955. The sale in most of these cases was effected with the consent of the land-holders and the protected tenants did not insist on paying a reasonable price. Instead, they paid at market rates. Some of them, however, yielded to the pressure of land-holders and surrendered their rights. The Government's policy was geared to facilitate land ownership to the tenants They had therefore to take special measures to accelerate the transfer of ownership and to consolidate the position of protected tenants. Areas were selected for the strict enforcement of the Act under which the ownership of all lands held by the protected tenants stood transferred and vested in the protected tenants. The protected tenant obtained necessary facility for the transfer of ownership. It was presumed under the Act that the tenant had already 60 per cent of the interest in the land and what remained to be purchased was only 40 per cent. The transfer of ownership was effected under Government's authority and the tenant was given a certificate which was conclusive evidence of his having become the owner of the land. The Tenancy Act of 1950 made ample provisions for the prevention of fragmentation and for consolidation of holdings. It laid down that no land should be permanently alienated, leased or subdivided so as to create a fragment. The Government had powers to prepare a scheme for consolidation of land holdings and to enforce it in areas previously notified. In order to fully associate public opinion with the implementation of land reforms, the Government appointed a Land Commission with three elected, one official and three nominated members.

Although the Agrarian Reforms Committee (1949) had recommended consolidation as far as possible by voluntary methods

through co-operative agencies, the Land Commission suggested that as the work was highly technical and required considerable knowledge of settlement and land records work, it should be started through departmental agencies only. The schemes had to be enforced with benevolent compulsion for which provision existed in the Tenancy Act.

Tenancy in Ijara Villages

According to the Hyderabad Tenancy and Agricultural Lands Act (1950), the tenancy of ordinary tenants was guaranteed for ten years and, as stated already, eviction was made illegal. Creation of new tenancies after 1953 was also restricted. The Hyderabad Land Revenue Amendment Act of 1952 aimed at improving the status of tenants of land in *Ijara* villages. After the expiry of the term, the lease-holders were recognised as *raiyatwari* holders on concessional land revenue assessment. With the concentration of large extents of land in their hands, most of them developed into a class similar to the zamindars of Uttar Pradesh and Bihar. The Tenancy Act of 1950 did not apply to their tenants, but some of them deserved still higher status by virtue of their long cultivation and their efforts for reclamation of the land. Such of those tenants as had been in possession of any land in an *Ijara* village continuously for a period of 12 years or who had from the commencement of cultivation or from the time *patta* was granted to the *Ijaradar*, cultivated such land jointly with the *Ijaradar*, were declared as *Shikmidars*, *i.e.*, holders of a proprietary right. They were also allowed a right to purchase the *Ijaradar's* nominal interests on payment of an amount not exceeding ten times the difference between the rent and the land revenue payable in respect of such lands.

There were complaints from cultivators in Gulbarga district that the land-holders, either wilfully or out of fear, were resorting to large-scale eviction of tenants. The Hyderabad Prevention of Evictions Ordinance was therefore promulgated in August 1952 to stay all suits claiming relief through eviction of tenants and to restore possession to tenants evicted after 21st March 1952. During the years 1951-52 and 1952-53, tenancy records were prepared for all the villages in the district to consolidate the position of the protected and ordinary tenants. As a token of recognition of the protected tenancy rights, certificates were distributed to six lakhs of protected tenants throughout the old Hyderabad State. Similarly, *Shikmidari* records were prepared in *Ijara* villages and *Shikmidari* certificates were also distributed.

Later Measures

The enactment of the Hyderbad Tenancy and Agricultural Lands Amendment Act of 1954 was yet another landmark in the progress of land reforms. Its object was to further improve the status of the tenants and to provide for the implementation of all the recommendations made by the Planning Commission on

land policy. The salient features of the new Act were the introduction of "family holding" as a new yard-stick for administration of land reforms, reduction in rents, their fixation in terms of multiples of land revenue, imposition of fresh restrictions on resumption for personal cultivation, imposition of ceilings on the size of holdings, on future acquisition of lands as well as on the existing holdings, sale of lands in favour of tenants on easier terms and assumption of management or acquisition by the State of surplus or inefficiently cultivated lands. Through the restrictions on resumption of land for personal cultivation, greater security to tenants and reduction in rents, the Act reduced the scope for exploitation by an absentee landlord. Maximum rents for both protected and ordinary tenants were also prescribed. The rent payable was normally the rent agreed upon between the landholder and the tenant or the reasonable rent fixed in disputed cases, but it was not to exceed four times the land revenue of irrigated lands and dry *chalka* lands and five times the land revenue for other dry lands. The Act aimed at merging of ownership with cultivation and at permitting the tenant to acquire ownership on easy terms.

It may be said that the Hyderabad Tenancy and Agricultural Lands Act as amended by the Amendment Act of 1954 fulfilled to a certain extent, some of the objectives of the land reforms policies. The main objectives were : (1) augmentation of agricultural production by a better system of land management, (2) reduction of inequalities in opportunities and income, and (3) provision of security for the tenants including opportunities for them to become owners of the land they cultivated. Increased production is absolutely essential for putting the national economy on a firm and secure basis. Production suffered because of large holdings held by absentee landlords who were solely interested in rents and not in increasing the production. The small and uneconomic holdings also stood in the way of any advance in agricultural production. The enactment of this legislation was a major step in land reforms.

After the States' reorganisation in November 1956, when the Gulbarga district was integrated with the new Mysore State, an ordinance was issued on 11th March 1957 suspending the provisions relating to the landholder's right to terminate protected tenancy and also staying all proceedings, whether for termination of tenancy or for resumption of land which were pending on 11th March 1957. Surrenders of land were required to be verified before the Tahsildar and registered in his office. The ordinance also contained a provision that all the lands surrendered by a tenant in excess of the family holding be taken over by Government and leased out to co-operative farming societies, agricultural labourers, landless persons and other agriculturists in that order.

This ordinance was replaced by the Hyderabad Areas Tenancy (Suspensions of Provisions and Amendment) Act of 1957.

Reforms after integration

In order to have a comprehensive legislation for the whole of the new Mysore State, the Mysore Tenancy Agricultural integration Land Laws Committee was set up by the Mysore Government on 10th May 1957 to examine the existing tenancy and agricultural land laws and to make suitable recommendations for a new legislation. According to this committee's report, there were 2,14,761 holdings with a total area of 35,81,423 acres of which 9,97,529 acres i.e., 27.85 per cent had been leased out. Among the many recommendations of this committee, the important ones related to abolition of leases, except in certain special cases like lands belonging to widows, service personnel and lands owned by mentally defective people. Regarding rents, the committee suggested a rent of one-sixth of the produce to be brought about in stages. It was recommended by the committee that a ceiling on the possession of lands should be fixed at four-and a half family holdings, each family holding fetching a net income of Rs. 1,200 a year. But the Central Committee for Land Reforms was very particular that the ceiling even for existing holdings under personal cultivation should have a net income of not more than Rs 3,600 a year. As regards compensation to be paid to the land lords, the report suggested that the owner should get fifteen times the fair rent less the amount of land revenue. The report of the committee was submitted to the State Government in 1958. The State Government, after studying the report introduced a Bill called the Mysore Land Reforms Bill before the Legislature in 1958. The Mysore Legislative Assembly discussed the Joint Select Committee's report and adopted the Bill in September 1961. Later on, the Bill was approved by the Upper House. The Bill was assented to by the President in March, 1962. This Act was amended in 1965 by Act 14 of 1965 and finally came into force throughout Mysore State with effect from 2nd October, 1965, the Gandhi Jayanthi day.

This Mysore Land Reforms Act, 1961 (Mysore Act 10 of 1962) as amended in 1965, is a highly important piece of legislation in the State of Mysore relating to agrarian relations, conferment of ownership on tenants, ceiling on land-holdings, etc. The enactment has made comprehensive provisions in respect of tenants' rights, ceiling limits of present holdings and future acquisitions, payment of compensation for surplus lands to be taken over from landlords and other connected matters.

No tenancy can be terminated merely on the ground that its duration, whether by agreement or otherwise, has expired. Tenants who were cultivating land prior to 10th September 1957, but who had been dispossessed either by surrender or eviction, are entitled for restoration of possession. Eviction of tenants can only be done according to Section 22 of the Act.

The existing tenancies would, however, continue till the resumable and non-resumable lands are determined and resumable lands are resumed by the landlords under Section 14. A landlord desiring to resume land from his tenant for personal cultivation or non-agricultural purposes should file a statement in Form I before the Tribunal appointed for the purpose. Land leased to permanent tenants or those leased by a company, association or other body of individuals (not being a joint family), whether incorporated or not, or by a religious, charitable or other institution capable of holding property, cannot be resumed.

The Munsiffs' courts in the districts are to function as Land Tribunals also for the present and the District Judge is the appellate authority.

From the date of vesting, all non-resumable lands leased to tenants would stand transferred to the State Government. Lands in excess of 27 standard acres in the case of existing holdings would be treated as surplus land, which would be vested with the Government. The ceiling area for future holdings is limited to 18 standard acres. A standard acre means one acre of first class land or extent equivalent thereto as laid down in the Schedule to the Act. The future ceiling would be therefore as below :—

Class of land		*Ceiling area in acres*
I Class	.	18
II Class	..	24
III Class	..	30
IV Class	..	36
V Class	..	72
VI Class	.	108
VII Class	..	144

The ceiling provisions do not apply to regimental farm lands or to plantations as defined in the Act.

Compensation would be paid for all lands vested in the State at the rates prescribed in the Act. The Act does not apply to lands belonging to or held on lease from the Government or from religious or charitable institutions managed by or under the control of the State Government or from a public trust or a society established for public education purpose created or formed before the 18th November 1961 and which was in existence on the 18th July 1965.

Administrative Set-up

The organisational set-up of the Revenue Department in the district of Gulbarga consists of a Deputy Commissioner who is the head of the revenue district; one Headquarters Assistant, two Assistant Commissioners, each in charge of a Sub-Division, *viz.*,

Gulbarga and Yadgir, one Development Assistant and one Food Assistant to the Deputy Commissioner and ten Tahsildars, one in each taluk. The Deputy Commissioner of the district, according to the Land Revenue Act, has to manage the affairs of the district in revenue and other matters. He is responsible to the State Government through the Divisional Commissioner, Gulbarga Division. Each taluk has been provided with a Deputy Tahsildar In addition, four taluks, *viz.*, Gulbarga, Chittapur, Yadgir and Chincholi have been provided with Special Tahsildars for recovery work for a temporary period from 1964. The powers and functions of the Deputy Commissioner are to organise and supervise the administrative machinery of the Revenue Department for implementing the policies of Government and ancillary matters. He has to supervise the treasuries and to co-ordinate the developmental activities under the community development programme. He is vested with powers of collection of the land revenue, assignment of lands and other revenue matters. He is also the Additional District Magistrate in so far as the maintenance of law and order is concerned. He has to keep watch over the import and export markets and the sufficiency of foodstuffs, supply of drinking water and fodder for the livestock. When epidemics break out, the Deputy Commissioner has to take preventive measures in consultation with the District Health Officer. During times of scarcity and famine, he has to make arrangements to help the population. The Assistant Commissioners are empowered to assign lands, settle boundary disputes and also correct errors and mistakes in settlement papers. When disputes arise among *pattadars*, they hear them for effective settlement. In the revenue areas in which they are appointed, the Assistant Commissioners have to protect the sources of irrigation and attend to related matters. The Tahsildar has also powers to assign lands, settle disputes about *patta* lease and settlement claims, and has to attend to collection of land revenue and allied matters.

Bhoodan

The Bhoodan movement initiated by Acharya Vinoba Bhave has had its impact on the minds of the people in the district. The land given in Bhoodan in the district is not much, but the spirit behind Bhoodan has been considerably appreciated by the people in the district. In order to remove certain defects in the transfer of land under the Bhoodan movement the Mysore Government enacted a legislation called the Mysore Bhoodan Yajna Act in 1963. The Act came into force from 1st July 1965.

The following was the extent of Bhoodan land in Gulbarga district taluk-wise in 1965 :—

Sl. No.	*Name of taluk*		*Extent in Acres and Guntas*
1.	Gulbarga	..	227—28
2.	Chittapur	..	428—25
3.	Yadgir	..	365—10
4.	Shahapur	..	109—09
5.	Shorapur	..	73—37
6.	Jevargi	..	70—18
7.	Afzalpur	..	159—02
8.	Aland	..	7—19
9.	Chincholi	..	220—20
10.	Seram	..	75—00
	Total	..	1,737—08

Taxes other than land revenue

In addition to the assessed land revenue, the other sources of income are the Sales-Tax, Agricultural Income-Tax, stamps and registration fees. The Central Government through their officers are collecting income-tax and excise duties.

The Commercial Taxes Department is responsible for the administration of both the Sales-Tax Act, 1957, and the Agricultural Income-Tax Act, 1957. Every dealer whose annual turnover is Rs. 7,500 or more has to get himself registered under Section 10(1) of the Mysore Sales-Tax Act, 1957. After getting himself duly registered, he has to file a return of turn-over every year as required by Section 12(1) and (19) of the Act. The sales tax on the turn-over is levied under Section 5(1), (2) and (4) of the Act. The tax is levied on single point and multi-point transactions. There are some goods which are exempted from the tax and these are specified in the schedule attached to the Act. The fee of registration for dealers is rupees six. During 1960-61, a total amount of Rs. 13,18,988 was collected in the district as sales tax, while the amounts collected during the subsequent years, i.e., 1962-63, 1963-64 and 1964-65 were Rs. 28,65,051, Rs. 31,72,222 and Rs. 34,11,419 respectively.

The Commercial Taxes Department is also in charge of collecting the Agricultural Income-Tax. A tax on income from agricultural produce is levied as per the Mysore Agricultural Income-Tax Act, 1957. Under the provisions of the Act, assessees have been classified into several classes, *viz.*, individuals, Hindu undivided families, firms, associations of persons and the like. Excepting the Hindu undivided families, all other classes of assessees have to pay a tax if their agricultural income for any one year

exceeds Rs. 3,500. The tax is levied on a slab basis. While most of the food crops have been exempted, all cash crops come under the levy. During 1960-61, a sum of Rs. 13,845 was collected towards this tax, while the collections in 1962-63, 1963-64 and 1964-55 were Rs. 28,264, Rs. 13,935 and Rs. 20,337, respectively.

Registration

The Registration Department in the district functions under the District Registrar, who is responsible to the Inspector-General of Registration and the Commissioner of Stamps. There are Sub-Registrars in eight taluk headquarters. The duties of the department are registration of documents, granting of licences to document writers and other works connected with registration. The District Registrar, who is the Deputy Commissioner, is also the Registrar of Marriages under the Special Marriages Act of 1954. He is also the custodian of sealed covers containing wills. The receipts of the department in the district during 1964-65 were Rs 87,370.

Excise

The Excise Department in the district (prohibition is not in force in this district) is responsible for the administration of the Opium Act, 1879, the Dangerous Drugs Act, 1930, and the Abkari Act. The Excise Department is under the administrative control of the State Excise Commissioner through the Deputy Commissioner (Excise). The District Excise Officer (Excise Superintendent) has to inspect the toddy and arrack shops and is empowered to issue licences for taverns. During 1964-65, the total revenue derived in the district under the Abkari laws was Rs. 51,73,244.

Stamps

The Commissioner of Stamps is the administrative head of the Stamps Department and the administration of stamps revenue in the district rests with the Deputy Commissioner. In the district, stamps are sold through Government treasuries. Stamps both judicial and non-judicial, are also sold through authorised vendors. During 1964-65, the total revenue collected under stamps was Rs. 10,22,189 in the district.

Income-Tax

There is only one Income-Tax Office at Gulbarga. The jurisdiction of this circle covers both Gulbarga and Bidar districts. The appellate jurisdiction vests with the Appellate Assistant Commissioner of Income-Tax at Bangalore. The estate duty of both Gulbarga and Bidar districts is assessed by the Assistant Controller of Estate Duty, Dharwar. The Income-Tax Officer, Gulbarga, holds jurisdiction over the wealth tax, expenditure tax and gift tax also. The Gulbarga Circle is manned by one Income-Tax Officer assisted by one Inspector on the executive side and clerks on the ministerial side. During 1963-64,

there were in all 3,344 assessees in the entire district. The break-up was as follows :——

Commercial	..	1,462
Salary	..	210
Urban	..	1,000
Rural	..	672

There were nearly 125 cases paying Super-Tax. According to the local Income-Tax Office, there were about 1,100 cases wherein the total income was between Rs. 3,600 and Rs. 10,000. The total Income-Tax collected during 1959-60 and 1960-61 was Rs. 6.66 lakhs and Rs. 9.30 lakhs, respectively.

In 1962, Chittapur and Yadgir taluks of Gulbarga district were attached to the Raichur Circle for purposes of collecting Income-Tax. Still, the total Income-Tax collections in the remaining eight taluks of the district in 1964-65 stood as Rs. 9.33 lakhs.

Central Excises

For purposes of Central Excises, Gulbarga district falls under the jurisdiction of Gulbarga Circle which is administered by a Superintendent. The district has been sub-divided into three multiple officers' ranges and three inspectors' ranges. The Gulbarga and Yadgir Excise Offices are administered by Deputy Superintendents while in Aland, Chittapur, Chincholi, and Seram, they are manned by Inspectors. The officer in charge of the district for the collection of excise is the Superintendent of Central Excise, Gulbarga. The excise levy was introduced in Gulbarga on the following commodities in the years shown against them.

Tobacco	..	1943
Cotton fabrics	..	1949
Cement	..	1954
Vegetable non-essential oils	.	1955*
Cotton yarn	..	1961

*The excise duty on vegetable non-essential oils was removed in 1962-63.

The total Central Excise collections under various heads for 1960-61 and 1964-65 are indicated in the following table:—

Commodity		Total revenue collected during the year	
		1960-61	1964-65
		Rs.	Rs.
Tobacco	..	3,52,055	4,33,130
Vegetable non-essential oils	..	6,74,910	..
Cement	..	1,14,52,750	1,44,75,584
Cotton fabrics	..	10,35,101	9,82,710
Cotton yarn	..	10,357	3,80,009

The rates of levy vary from time to time according to the financial and budgetary policies of the Central Government.

Statement showing the Demand, Collection and Balance of Land Revenue in Gulbarga district for the year 1984-65.

Sl. No	Name of the Taluk		Demand	Collection	Balance
			Rs. P.	Rs. P.	Rs. P
1.	Gulbarga	..	9,53,153.26	5,09,889.46	4,43,263.80
2.	Aland	..	5,38,351.94	5,00,012.91	38,339.03
3.	Afzalpur	..	4,41,296.43	4,01,499.08	39,797.35
4.	Chittapur	..	12,25,758 45	8,41,712.50	3,84,045.95
5.	Seram	..	4,18,156.30	3,72,661.78	45,494.52
6.	Yadgir	..	8,66,598.26	4,30,005.91	4,36,592.35
7.	Shorapur	..	4,97,762.69	3,66,391.26	1,31,371.43
8.	Shahapur	..	5,05,365.97	4,75,481 32	30,885.65
9.	Jevargi	..	5,91,091.74	5,15,746.67	75,345.07
10.	Chincholi	..	5,90,918.11	4,92,622.62	98,295.49
	Total	..	66,28,453.15	49,06,023.51	17,23,430.64

CHAPTER XII

LAW, ORDER AND JUSTICE

Early History

THE history of the police administration in respect of Gulbarga district may be broadly divided into two distinct periods, the period prior to 1947 and that subsequent to it. Under the Nizam's rule, Gulbarga was the divisional headquarters comprising the four districts of Gulbarga, Bidar, Raichur and Osmanabad. The police as the custodians of law and order were classed as regular Diwani forces and there were also the irregular forces administered by the various petty feudalistic pockets known as Jagirs and Paigahs. It is apparent that there was no administrative uniformity. The whole police force was not one entity. The Diwani police had regular training, whereas the same was not the case with those who were serving in the Jagirs, Paigahs and petty States. Prior to the abolition of Jagirs, Gulbarga district had a number of these feudal pockets. The maintenance of law and order in these Jagirs was the responsibility of the Jagirdars. They maintained their police force with no rigidity in rules, discipline or any definite methods of administration. For a very long time before the dawn of independence, Gulbarga was the centre of communal factions. Several serious flare-ups disturbed the peace and tranquillity of the district. Whenever the situation got out of control, the military had to be called in to restore order. The Arya Samaj movement in 1937 had its own impact on the law and order situation of the district. Thousands of Arya Samaj satyagrahis from all parts of the country marched towards Gulbarga from Sholapur, which was their headquarters. Apart from the regular groups of satyagrahis who offered civil resistance, a number of satyagrahis from other places in the Nizam's territory also came to the district. Later on, the political agitation for responsible Government in the State worsened the situation. The police had a tough time throughout this period. Gulbarga was a main centre for these agitations and top-ranking leaders including the State Congress chief were lodged in the Gulbarga Central Prison. Subsequently, the Razakar trouble which led to the police action added to the strain on the police force.

After the police action in September 1948, the Indian Union Government took over the responsibilities of administering the Hyderabad State. At that time, about 40 to 50 per cent of the Muslim officers left their jobs and migrated to Pakistan. In the interim period, it was a difficult problem indeed for the police to maintain law and order. Unwanted political organisations fomenting communal disharmony had to be rigorously suppressed, *goondas* and brigands had to be brought under control and order had to be maintained. The police force in Gulbarga was put on a solid footing with new recruits who were given good training. Then some order was restored and morale ensured. But a big communal riot suddenly flared up on 27th August 1954, following the hoisting of the Pakistani flag on the Ganesh Mandir in the Gulbarga saraf bazaar. The situation went out of control. Loot, arson and murder took place. Seven persons were killed and about 35 shops were looted. The Hyderabad State Reserve Police camped in Gulbarga for weeks to restore calm. Finally, peace and tranquillity were restored.

With the reorganisation of States in 1956, the Hyderabad State was trifurcated and the districts of Gulbarga, Raichur and Bidar were integrated with the Mysore State. Gulbarga was made once again the divisional headquarters. A number of reforms, and new regulations came into force in the wake of these changes. In 1959, the police reorganisation in the district saw the setting-up of three sub-divisions in Gulbarga, Shahabad and Yadgir. The number of police circles rose to seven.

General situation of Law and Order

The law and order situation in the district was now generally normal. There were no communal disturbances or occasions for communal tension anywhere after the 1954 disturbances. There are two major industrial concerns within the confines of the district with a large labour force, *viz.*, the Associated Cement Companies Ltd., at Shahabad and the M.S.K. Mills at Gulbarga. In the industrial area of Gulbarga, a hunger-strike incident in September 1961 created some tension, but order was restored soon. The reason advanced for this hunger-strike was the non-implementation of an award recommended by the All-India Textile Wage Board. The strike period remained peaceful and no untoward incident took place. There was a *satyagraha* by the Republican Party of India in Gulbarga town during the month of December 1964, protesting against the soaring prices of food-grains. The *satyagraha* which commenced on 6th December 1964 continued till the end of the month. With a view to maintaining law and order and restoring peace about 350 persons, including 120 women, were arrested and detained in judicial custody. They were released later.

Incidence of Crime

Cognisable offences under the Indian Penal Code have been classified into six separate categories for purposes of investigation.

The main classifications under the cognisable crimes are offences against the State, offences against persons, serious offences against persons and property, minor offences against persons, minor offences against property and other offences not specified above.

The following table gives the number of crimes according to the above classifications for the years 1962, 1963 and 1964 :—

Classifications	1962	1963	1964
Class I—offences against the State, public tranquillity, safety and justice ..	67	102	103
Class II—serious offences against persons	309	247	268
Class III—serious offences against persons and property or against property ..	223	253	312
Class IV—minor offences against persons	57	43	49
Class V— minor offences against property	270	274	354
Class VI—other offences not specified above	10	18	20

During 1964, some categories of crimes showed an increase when compared to the figures of the previous two years and some decrease in respect of o'her classifications.

Grave Crimes

The increase of offences under Class II (serious offences against persons) and Class III (serious offences against persons and property or against property alone) as shown in the table above was perhaps due to bad seasonal conditions and unemployment. The number of cases of grave crimes, *viz.*, murder, dacoity, robbery, house-breaking and theft and ordinary thefts during 1964 is given below :—

Murder	..	59
Dacoity	..	33
Robbery	..	9
House-breaking and theft	..	209
Ordinary theft	..	211

The following is the classifications of murders according to motives :—

Motive		*1962*	*1963*	*1964*
Sexual Causes	..	9	9	20
Gain	..	..	6	2
Family quarrels	..	12	8	6
Faction feuds	..	17	10	9
Other causes	..	14	22	22
Total	..	52	55	59

Infanticide

Cases of infanticide registered by the police showed a downward trend in 1964 when compared to the two previous years. In 1963 there were nine cases while the number of cases in 1962 was 13. Infanticides were due to illicit sexual connections when the mothers, fearing social consequences, murdered their new-born babies.

Riots and Disturbances

As regards riots and disturbances which came in the way of public peace and tranquillity, there was a slight increase from 90 cases in 1963 to 95 in 1964. In 1962 there were only 64 cases of rioting. These cases usually arose out of land disputes and village feuds, but prompt action prevented these incidents from taking a serious turn.

House-breaking and theft

In all, there were 190 cases of house-breaking and theft and 144 cases of ordinary thefts in 1961. The corresponding figures for 1964 were 209 and 211, respectively. The following table gives actual figures of property lost and recovered from 1957 to 1964 .—

Year		*Property Lost*	*Property Recovered*
		Rs.	Rs.
1957	..	2,14,567.85	39,639.90
1958	..	1,30,747.77	47,970.00
1959	..	87,154.00	33,327.00
1960	..	1,12,415.00	44,753.00
1961	..	2,07,148.00	24,050.00
1962	..	2,04,892.00	41,120.00
1963	..	1,76,213.00	45,094.00
1964	..	3,35,874.00	43,546.00

Dacoity Cases

There were only 10 dacoity cases in the district in 1963; but there was an unusual increase in this number in 1964 in that 33 cases were registered in various parts of the district. It was found that most of these offences occurred mainly in the bordering villages of the district. The main reasons adduced for this increase in the number of dacoities were adverse seasonal conditions and unemployment. The bulk of the crimes was attributed to border criminals.

Only one case of counterfeiting was reported in 1960. There were no such cases from 1961 to 1964.

Accidental deaths

During 1964, 512 accidental deaths were reported as against 504 in 1963 and 430 in 1962. The break-up of these totals is given below :—

Causes of death		*1962*	*1963*	*1964*
Accidental drowning	..	139	177	146
Suicidal drowning	..	74	76	74
Suicidal hanging	..	75	98	88
Snake bites	..	46	69	62
Wild beast menace	..	..	1	4
Burns	..	6	17	20
Electric shocks	..	1	1	4
Lightning	..	9	9	4
Mining accidents	..	1	1	..
Motor accidents	..	1	..	9
Rail accidents	..	1	2	1
Fall from heights	..	2	2	8
Crushed by weights	..	1	1	8
Gun-shot accidents	..	..	..	..
Poisoning	..	2	1	7
Sunstroke accidents	..	1	..	..
Other causes	..	71	49	80
Total	..	430	504	512

It would be of interest to know that in 1961 there were 61 cases of sunstroke in Gulbarga district. This was due to the abnormal rise in the summer temperature, when the mercury shot up to 105 degrees Fahrenheit in shade. Gulbarga district situated as it is on the Deccan Plateau has sharp variations in temperature, chilly in winter months and very warm in summer months. There had not been any sun-stroke deaths in 1963 and 1964. Snake bites are common in the northern hilly areas.

The provisions of the Suppression of Immoral Traffic in Women and Girls Act of 1956 have been strictly enforced in the district During 1964, 12 cases were booked as against 16 in 1963.

Security cases

The numbers of cases booked under the various provisions of the Criminal Procedure Code during the period from 1960 to 1964 are given below :—

Section		*Cases put up*	*Number bound over*
107 Cr. P. C.			
1960	..	91	26
1961	..	110	14
1962	..	118	40
1963	..	81	8
1964	..	96	11

Section		*Cases put up*	*Number bound over*
109 Cr. P. C.			
1960	..	351	314
1961	..	306	245
1962	..	225	181
1963	..	267	202
1964	..	271	209
110 Cr. P. C.			
1960	..	23	15
1961	..	25	11
1962	..	8	1
1963	..	25	15
1964	..	52	37

Prosecutions

The following table indicates the total number of prosecutions launched by the police and the number which ended in convictions :—

Year		*Prosecuted*	*Convicted*
1962	..	1,140	175
1963	..	1,208	234
1964	..	1,674	317

The low figure of convictions as disclosed in the statement is due to various causes like the paucity of eye witnesses, suppression of evidence and the like and besides, many of the prosecutions launched in courts were still pending.

Detection of grave crimes

The following table indicates the percentage of detection of grave crimes in 1961.

Murders	..	18 per cent
Dacoity	..	25 per cent
House-breaking and thefts	..	50 per cent

The total percentage of detection of grave crimes in 1964 was 38.96, which was an improvement over the previous year's (1963) percentage of 25.37.

Habitual offenders

Only three habitual offenders had been registered in the police stations of the district, the strength of known depredators in the district in 1964 was about 150. The provisions of the Habitual Offenders' Act, as in force in the district, were being followed to book the habitual offenders.

Intelligence Branch

An intelligence branch is functioning in the district since 1960, manned by one Sub-Inspector of Police and six Head Constables. Upto 1964, 751 previous convicts had been brought on the *modus*

operandi index cards. During 1964, 82 advisory memos were issued in respect of property offences to the concerned investigating officers. Dossier sheets of district criminals were also being maintained and greater control was being exercised over their movements. In 1964 there were 53 district criminals in Gulbarga district as against 21 in 1961.

There is a Finger Print Bureau at Bangalore. The finger print slips of the arrested persons in property offences are sent to the Bangalore office to trace out any possible previous convictions. When there is evidence that a person was previously convicted, the fact is disclosed in the court for enhancement of punishment under Section 75 of the Criminal Procedure Code.

There is no fire-fighting unit working in the district managed by the district police. The industrial establishments have their own fire-fighting devices. In times of emergency, these units are requisitioned for quelling fire out-breaks.

There is no anti-corruption branch attached to the district police. There is a separate department functioning under the State Vigilance Commissioner in Bangalore. The Divisional Commissioner, Gulbarga Division, is the concerned authority to take measures in this respect.

Lock-ups

Generally, all the police stations in Gulbarga district have two separate lock-ups, one for men and the other for women. These lock-ups are kept in good condition and are guarded by police constables.

Traffic control

Many of the roads in the urban areas in the district are narrow. As a measure of traffic control, the police have introduced, wherever possible, one-way traffic and traffic islands. The traffic staff attached to the district police check all the motor vehicles periodically. With the aid of the town police, they also make surprise checks once in a quarter. The flying squad attached to the traffic section periodically carries out checks to stop over-speeding.

Prevention of Smuggling

With a view to preventing smuggling of food grains, etc., across the border, the State Government have established 11 check-posts at strategic places on the borders of the Gulbarga district. The staff attached to these check-posts promptly check all the vehicles going towards the borders of neighbouring States and *vice-versa*. Any one found contravening the rules is prosecuted under appropriate sections of law.

The Mysore Police Act, 1963 (Mysore Act No. 4 of 1964), was adopted and brought into force throughout the State with effect

from 2nd April 1965, replacing the earlier Hyderabad Police Act which was in force in Gulbarga district.

Organisation of the police force

In order to efficiently manage the police administration of the Mysore State, the districts are divided into police ranges, Gulbarga district coming under the northern Belgaum range administered by a Deputy Inspector-General of Police, who has his headquarters at Belgaum. In Gulbarga, as in other districts, there are the local police and the armed police called the armed reserve wing. The Deputy Commissioner of Gulbarga district has control over the district police as far as maintenance of law and order is concerned. But the Inspector-General of Police guides, controls and supervises the recruitment, training, housing and equipment of the police in the district. The usual functions of the district police include the prevention and detection of crimes, maintenance of law and order, the apprehension of criminals, guarding of private and public property and the prosecution of offenders. They also perform many other duties including the control of traffic, service of summons in sessions cases and other security precautions. The Superintendent of Police is the head of the police force in the district. He exercises general control and supervision over his subordinates. Immediately under the Superintendent of Police, there are the Deputy Superintendents of Police in charge of sub-divisions. Next in the hierarchy are the Circle Inspectors, Sub-Inspectors, Assistant Sub-Inspectors, Head Constables and Constables.

Gulbarga district has been divided into three sub-divisions, *viz.*, Gulbarga, Shahabad and Yadgir, which are supervised by Deputy Superintendents of Police. There are seven police circles, one each in Gulbarga town, Shahabad, Aland, Chincholi, Yadgir, Shorapur and Jevargi, managed by Circle Inspectors.

Police Stations

Police stations are located at the following places :—

Circle	*Police Stations*
Gulbarga town	(1) Station Bazaar
	(2) Chowk
	(3) Jagat
	(4) Gramin
	(5) Mahagaon
Shahabad	(1) Shahabad
	(2) Chittapur
	(3) Seram
	(4) Mudhol
Aland	(1) Aland
	(2) Narona
	(3) Afzalpur
	(4) Nimbargi
	(5) Revoor

Chincholi	**(1) Chincholi**
	(2) Sulepet
	(3) Ratkal
	(4) Kalgi
Yadgir	**(1) Yadgir town**
	(2) Yadgir rural
	(3) Gurmatkal
	(4) Saidapur
	(5) Wadgera
Shorapur	**(1) Shorapur**
	(2) Kodekal
	(3) Kembhavi
	(4) Shahapur
Jevargi	**(1) Jevargi**
	(2) Gogi
	(3) Farhatabad
	(4) Yedrami
	(5) Nilogi

Strength of police force

There were four gazetted police officers in the district, *viz.*, one Superintendent of Police and three Deputy Superintendents of Police in charge of Sub-Divisions in 1964-65. In the inspectors' cadre, there were seven Circle Inspectors and two other Inspectors, *viz.*, Reserve Inspector and Special Branch Inspector. Besides, there were 36 sub-inspectors of police, 6 assistant sub-inspectors, 157 head constables and 1,070 constables in the district.

Armed Reserve Wing

Attached to the Gulbarga district police, there is a separate armed reserve wing consisting of one Reserve Inspector, seven sub-inspectors, six assistant reserve sub-inspectors, 43 head constables and 260 constables. In addition to this permanent strength 15 head constables and 25 police constables are put under temporary establishment.

Special Branch

The Special Branch attached to the Gulbarga district police deals with confidential information concerning political parties, trade unions, communal organisations, agrarian associations and the like. This branch is managed by an inspector who works directly under the Superintendent of Police.

Welfare of the police

The police officers and men have been provided with housing facilities. Construction of residential quarters for officers and men at Gulbarga town, Kamalapur, Saidapur, Gogi, Nilogi, Chincholi, Nimbargi and Gurmatkal has been completed. Among the other welfare measures may be mentioned the District Police Benevolent Fund which extends financial aid to policemen in cases of illness and deaths and also for the education of their children, the ration shops which supply foodgrains to the members of the

police force at fair prices; the milk centre and the Police Co-operative Society which supply wholesome milk and articles of daily utility, respectively at reasonable rates. Besides, a poultry farm, a swimming pool, a children's park and clubs for officers and men of the police force, are also provided.

Railway Police

The railway police force in Gulbarga district consists of one sub-inspector who is stationed at Wadi railway junction, eight head constables and 30 constables. There are three police stations under the railway police in Gulbarga district at Wadi junction, Shahabad and Gulbarga. The different kinds of railway thefts in the district are theft of passengers' properties in running trains, theft of railway property such as coal and other materials used for the track, theft of goods from wagons and picking the pockets of passengers on railway platforms. In order to check these evils, the railway police are on constant vigilance.

The total cost of the district police force in 1964-65 was Rs. 17.86 lakhs.

Prison

From early records it is seen that Gulbarga town had a jail under the control of the former reigning monarchs. Since Gulbarga was the capital city of the Bahmani Sultans, for some time, they had a jail, the administration of which was conducted on somewhat primitive methods. Prisoners who were lodged in the jail were kept in fetters throughout the period of their imprisonment. The disciplinary punishments were severe in character. From that crude state of affairs, the present system of prison management was evolved through continuous reformative changes. The jail reforms were first introduced in 1897 by Mr. Hankin, who was the Director-General of Prisons of the Nizam's Government. He was the founder of the modern system of prison administration. He organised district jails and compiled a manual for the administration of prisons. Many reforms were introduced during Mr. Hankin's management of the State prisons. The prisoners were provided evening recreation, and a system of parole was introduced in favour of the convicts who conformed to the strict discipline of the jails. He also established a discharged prisoners' aid society.

Gulbarga Central Prison

Gulbarga district has a central prison situated in the midst of Gulbarga town, at a little distance from the district offices. It is an old prison serving as a central jail for the three districts of the Hyderabad-Karnatak area. It is the only prison house for the whole district. There are no sub-jails or judicial lock-ups except, of course, the police station lock-ups, which are meant for apprehended offenders.

The Central Prison has a total area of about 40 acres with capacity for lodging 750 prisoners of all categories. The hospital attached to the prison has 40 beds. The administration of the Central Prison is governed by the Hyderabad Jail Manual (Hyderabad Prison Rules, 1955). The prisoners lodged in the jail are classified into three district categories, *viz.*, A, B and C, according to the convicts' previous character and antecedents and also their work and conduct in the prison. The convicts are closely observed at regular intervals and the observations are recorded on the personality trait forms. The classified prisoners are lodged in separate barracks during nights. They are also given identity badges of different colours according to the nature of classifications decided. As on 1st December 1965, there were 140 'A' class, 377 'B' class and 10 'C' class prisoners in the Gulbarga jail.

Women convicts

The women convicts are lodged in a separate enclosure inside the Central Prison. There are four matrons who look after their welfare. The tasks allotted for these convicts are one-half or two-thirds of those prescribed for male convicts. The rules which govern the lodging of women convicts are detailed in Chapter XX of the Hyderabad Jail Manual. As on 1st December 1965, there were in all 23 female prisoners, of whom two were serving life imprisonment and five were under-trial prisoners.

Death Sentences

Death sentences are not executed in the Gulbarga Central Prison. Prisoners admitted into this prison for sentence of death are transferred to the Central Jail at Bellary.

Training

Training in crafts like weaving, carpentry, dyeing, smithy and tailoring is provided generally for the convicts. As soon as a convict is admitted, his previous occupation is ascertained. The majority of the prisoners are known to have pursued agriculture as their main occupation However, each convict is closely observed before he is entrusted with a particular occupation. Prisoners are given training in such crafts as are suitable to their aptitude.

Dress

Prisoners who are sentenced to rigorous imprisonment are provided with the following jail dress, the cloth being manufactured in the jail factory :—

Sleeveless/half arm cotton shirts	..	Two per year
Cotton pyjamas	..	Two per year
Towels	..	Two per year
Caps	..	Two per year

Under-trial prisoners are not given any dress. They are allowed to wear their own clothes. If they do not have their own they are provided with stripeless clothing.

Diet

The prisoners are given food three times, rice kanji in the morning, a meal between 9-45 A.M. and 10-15 A.M. and the next meal in the evening between 4-30 P.M. and 5-30 P.M. For those who are in the habit of taking non-vegetarian food, mutton is supplied once a week. Rice is given on Wednesdays and Sundays at the rate of five chataks, two tolas and six mashes per person. On the other days the convicts are allotted jowar bread or wheat bread, at the rate of 12 chataks of flour each daily. In addition the rations include salt, tamarind, chillies, garlic and onions, tur dhal, green dhal, moong dhal, gur, groundnut oil, curds and vegetables in prescribed quantities.

Jail Industries

The Central Prison, Gulbarga, is noted for its quality carpets and tents manufactured by the inmates of the jail. Besides these, wooden and rattan furniture, textiles like towels, bed-sheets, mosquito curtains and bandage cloth, washing soap and phenyle are also manufactured in the prison. In 1963, articles worth Rs. 4,42,324 were manufactured in the prison, while the value of articles produced in 1964 was Rs. 5,74,128.

Sanitation

Careful attention is paid to sanitation inside the prison. All the barracks and departmental quarters are kept scrupulously clean. Latrines are daily washed with copious quantities of phenyl, occasional D.D.T. spraying and by other methods. Night-soil is disposed off through the bucket system. All the drains inside the prison are daily cleaned with phenyl.

General health

The general health of the prisoners is quite satisfactory. This is largely due to the fresh air, good and wholesome food, and the healthy environment they have. In order to maintain the general health of the prisoners, mental and physical recreation facilities like sports and games are provided. The out-door games provided are volley ball, basket ball and Kabaddi. The indoor games are carrom and chess. Cultural activities such as drama, group singing and *kolata* are also organised by the prisoners.

Life prisoners

A special feature of the Gulbarga Central Prison is that nearly 75 per cent of the inmates are life prisoners convicted for the offence of murder under Section 302 of the Indian Penal Code. As on 1st December 1965, there were 286 life prisoners in the Central Prison. All prisoners who are awarded life sentences in the three districts of Bidar, Raichur and Gulbarga are lodged in the Gulbarga Central Prison. The maximum period that a life prisoner can be lodged in the jail is 15 years.

Short-term prisoners

The short-term prisoners who are lodged in the jail are daily sent out on extra work under the security of guards. There were 250 male and 16 female short-term convicts in the prison as on 1st December 1965.

Juvenile prisoners are confined in a separate barracks attached to the Central Prison. As on 1st December 1965, four children were committed to the juvenile barracks.

Interview regulations

Prisoners are allowed interviews with their parents, wives, husbands and children once a fortnight. They are also allowed to see their friends and relatives once a month. Convict overseers and convict warders as also convict-watchmen are also allowed interviews with their parents, wives, husbands and children once a fortnight. As there are three types of classified prisoners, *viz.*, A, B and C, interview rooms are also of three types. In the 'A' type interview room, one table and benches on the sides are arranged for the prisoners to sit on one side and their people to sit on the other side. The 'B' type interview room has a frame with iron bars fixed on a parapet wall where the prisoner sits on a bench on one side and the relatives on the other side. An executive officer of the jail is present at the time of the interview. In the 'C' type of room, there is also a frame fixed similar to that of 'B' type with glass and wire-net shutters. Prisoners classified as 'C' type are allowed to talk with their relations and friends, through the duo-phone. In this room also benches are provided on both sides. The duration of interviews cannot be for more than 20 minutes. The Superintendent of the Jail may, at his discretion, grant interviews for longer periods than are provided in the rules, if he considers that special or urgent grounds exist for such an interview. Under-trial prisoners are allowed interviews once a week with their relatives and friends.

Enforcement of discipline

The general discipline and daily routine of the Central Prison are governed by the rules detailed in chapter XXIX of the Hyderabad Jail Manual. The nature of punishments for jail offences are enumerated in chapter XXX of the Hyderabad Jail Manual which are (1) formal warning, (2) change of labour to irksome or severe form for a specified period, (3) hard labour for a period not exceeding seven days to a prisoner who has not been sentenced to rigorous imprisonment, (4) forfeiture of remission already earned, (5) exclusion from the privileges of the remission system for a specified period, (6) forfeiture of classification, prison privileges or deferred pay, (7) temporary reduction from a higher to a lower classification, (8) separate confinement and (9) cellular confinement. All these punishments are awarded by the Superintendent.

Ticket-holders

Convict-warders, convict-overseers and convict-night-watchmen are given allotted duties, having regard to their conduct. These are life prisoners who have to serve a long term of rigorous imprisonment. After some years, the Superintendent of the jail selects some of these convicts for special duties. They are given tickets and then they are called ticket-holders. As on 1st December 1965, there were, in the Central Prison, 49 convict-warders, 34 convict-overseers and 28 convict-night-watchmen. The

dress of the convict-night-watchman is the same as that of an ordinary convict except that the cap worn by him is of a round shape and three inches high. The cap is white or black according to the category of the prisoner, *viz.*, casual or habitual. The dress of convict overseers is the same as that of an ordinary convict except that the cap is again of round shape and three inches high. He wears a belt with a zinc plate 3 inches by 2¼ inches on which the words "convict-overseer" are engraved for purposes of identification. The dress of a convict-warder consists of a white coat, with five plain zinc buttons, canary yellow knickers, trousers with or without patties according to the climate, canary yellow turban and leather belt with a zinc plate on which the words "convict-warder" are engraved. The convict-warder is also provided with a baton.

Welfare of prisoners

The prisoners lodged in the Central Prison are allowed to write letters to their relatives and friends and also receive letters from them as per prescribed rules. They are also released on parole and furlough according to the Jail Manual. There is a full-time teacher directly working under the Superintendent, to conduct adult education classes. Prisoners are encouraged to attend these classes. The teacher also imparts lessons in Hindi. As on 1st December 1964, 15 prisoners had passsed the Hindi "Bhushana" and one, the "Sahitya-Visharada" examinations, which are equal to Intermediate and B.A. examinations in Hindi, respectively. A library with Kannada, Hindi and English books is provided for the use of the prisoners. In their spare time, the convicts are allowed to work the Ambar Charkha and the amount so earned is credited to their account.

Prison Administration

The Central Prison at Gulbarga is managed by a whole-time Superintendent who is directly responsible to the Inspector-General of Prisons at Bangalore. In the day-to-day work, the Superintendent is assisted by one Assistant Superintendent and a Chief Jailor. The Executive Jailor and the Factory Jailor are allotted tasks as per rules 177 to 184 of the Hyderabad Jail Manual. The preventive and the curative side of the health of the convicts is looked after by a medical officer who has under him compounders, ward-boys and peons. The ministerial work is handled by a Manager who is assisted by clerks and typists.

In order to preserve strict security conditions in the Central Prison, there are four chief warders, seven head-warders, 105 men warders and four women warders.

Visitors' Board

An advisory committee for the review of cases in respect of long-term prisoners has been constituted under the orders of the State Government. This Committee consists of the District and Sessions Judge as chairman, the District Magistrate, the Deputy

Commissioner, the Superintendent of Police and two nominated non-officials as members. The Committee generally meets once in six months, *i.e.*, in October and April to review the cases of convicts sentenced to five years or more. The Committee, after going through each case, recommends premature releases or postponement of the review. In case premature releases are suggested, the recommendation is submitted to the State Government through the Inspector-General of Prisons. Detailed rules are framed in this connection in the Hyderabad Jail Manual in Chapter XXXI.

Receipts and Expenditure

The total receipts and expenditure for the year 1964-65 in respect of the Central Prison came to Rs. 1,83,530 and Rs. 7,76,877 respectively. The receipts included the sale of products manufactured at the Jail factory.

The State Government have since decided to remodel and convert this Central Prison into a super-market.

Administration of Justice

Early history

Prior to 1866, Gulbarga district had no separate judicial courts. The revenue officers had powers to dispense civil justice. In 1863, the whole of the Nizam's dominion was divided into districts. Then, separate city courts were established to entertain cases of a civil nature. In 1870, the powers to decide civil cases were taken away from all the revenue officers except the Tahsildars who still retained civil powers as there were no civil courts in taluk headquarters. On the criminal side, the Talukdar and the police patils disposed of magisterial work. The Subedar of Gulbarga was the highest judicial officer in addition to his revenue duties. Before 1951, there was only one District Court for the entire Gulbarga Suba which included the three Karnataka districts, *viz.*, Gulbarga, Raichur and Bidar. The District Judge, Gulbarga, was the presiding officer for all these three districts. After April 1951, the Suba court was abolished and each district in the Hyderabad-Karnataka area was provided with a District and Sessions Court. In the intervening years, the judicial and executive functions were fully separated and every taluk, wherever possible, was given a whole-time judicial officer who exercised both civil and criminal powers. The districts in their turn were each given a District Judge. Along with these, one Sessions Court was established in each of the divisions. In this way, the revenue officers were relieved of the work of a judicial nature.

After a lapse of some years of the introduction of this change, a committee was appointed by a royal *Firman* to go through and report on the working of the separation scheme. The committee, after full deliberation, reported in favour of the retention of the

scheme, mainly on the ground that the reforms had proved beneficial to the people in many respects. A significant feature of the reforms had been the reduction of duration of both civil and criminal cases. While formerly the Subedars and revenue officers used to take much longer time in disposing of the cases as they also had other duties, besides judicial, to perform, after separation the judicial function was the sole responsibility of presiding officers of courts. In the districts civil judges were individually invested with small cause powers wherever necessary. The jury system was introduced in 1932. In addition to the above courts, the *Sarf-e-Khas Mubarak*, *Paigahs* and *Jagirs* had their own courts of law which administered justice under the supervision of the Hyderabad High Court.

District Judge

The District Judge is the highest judicial authority in the district. He is also the Sessions Judge of the district and is appointed by the State Government in consultation with the High Court of Mysore. As District and Sessions Judge, he is the presiding officer of the District and Sessions Court. He is also an appellate authority over the decisions of the Munsiffs in civil cases and Magistrates including the District Magistrate in criminal cases. Besides the judicial functions as the Head of the district and Unit Officer, he has administrative jurisdiction and exercises general supervision and control over the judiciary in the district. Powers of appointment, transfers and sanction of leave and pensions to the members of the staff functioning under his control, are vested in the District and Sessions Judge. He can also impose punishments in cases of indiscipline. He is empowered to inspect the subordinate courts once in a year or so.

In his judicial capacity, he performs appellate functions over the judgments delivered by the lower courts. Original civil suits of the pecuniary value of over Rs. 20,000 are also disposed of by the District Judge. Besides, he hears and disposes of special appeals under various special Acts, such as the Rent Control Act and other State Acts.

Formerly, there was an Additional District and Sessions Judge for Gulbarga and Raichur. He was sitting at Gulbarga to hear cases arising in Gulbarga district and at Raichur to look into the cases arising in Raichur district. This Additional District and Sessions Judge's Court was abolished with effect from 1st of April 1965.

Consequent on the implementation of the Mysore Civil Courts Act from 1st July 1964, the powers of the District Judge of entertaining suits as the Court of first instance have been transferred to the Civil Judge. The District Judge's Court is now an appellate court, which entertains civil appeals against the decrees in cases in which the property is worth over Rs. 10,000 but does not

exceed Rs. 20,000. The District Judge continues to exercise the powers under the special Acts as before.

Civil Judge

There is a Civil Judge's Court at Gulbarga. He is also the District Magistrate of the district performing specified duties under appropriate Acts.

Under the Mysore Civil Courts Act, the Civil Judge has unlimited pecuniary jurisdiction with reference to original civil suits. Besides, he has appellate jurisdiction to hear appeals from the decrees and orders passed by the Munsiffs with reference to suits whose value does not exceed Rs. 10,000.

Munsiff-Magistrates

The Munsiff-Magistrates have their courts in Gulbarga town Shorapur, Chittapur, Aland, Yadgir, Seram and Chincholi. An additional post of Munsiff-Magistrate has been created temporarily at Shorapur with effect from July 1965. There are two other Munsiff-Magistrates' Courts in Gulbarga called the First Additional Munsiff-Magistrate's Court and the 2nd Additional Munsiff-Magistrate's Court. These Munsiff-Magistrates dispense both civil and criminal justice as specified in the respective codes On the criminal side, they exercise powers of a First Class Magistrate under the Code of Criminal Procedure, in their jurisdictions. Munsiff-Magistrates are responsible to the District Judge in all administrative matters. But under the Code of Criminal Procedure they are also answerable to the District Magistrate.

Consequent on the implementation of the Mysore Civil Courts Act, the Munsiffs have been empowered to entertain civil suits up to the value of Rs. 10,000 within their jurisdictions.

There are no separate juvenile courts in the district but the Principal Munsiff-Magistrate in Gulbarga town is invested with powers of a juvenile court.

Executive Magistrates

The Deputy Commissioner of the district is also the Additional District Magistrate empowered to maintain law and order. The Assistant Commissioners who are in charge of sub-divisions and the Tahsildars of revenue taluks perform certain magisterial work as specified in the Code. All the subordinate Executive Magistrates are responsible to the Additional District Magistrate.

A perusal of the records of the civil courts reveal that, in the main, property disputes, partition suits, declaratory suits, pecuniary and fiscal cases and mortgage disputes are filed and disposed of.

Statistics

During 1964-65 a total number of 1262 suits were instituted in all the civil courts in the district. There were also some pending cases. During the same year, 1,438 suits were disposed of, their

total value being Rs. 2,05,180. At the end of 1965, there were 962 cases pending in civil courts. Arising out of these suits, 814 appeal petitions were pending in the district court. The Sessions Court did not pass any death sentence in 1964-65, but it dealt with 51 cases involving life imprisonment and 68 cases involving imprisonment and fine. There were no cases under the Anti-Corruption Act.

There were about 170 lawyers practising in the district in 1961. There were also some first and second grade pleaders practising, and in their cases, their sanads were renewed every year by the District Judge under the provisions of the old Pleaders' Act.

Bar Association

There is a Bar Association in Gulbarga housed in a room in the District Court Premises and all legal practitioners working in the district are eligible to become members of this Association. The Association has its own President, Secretary and Treasurer and it has also its own library. A separate building is under construction for the Association. Since 1961, the Bar Associations are being sanctioned separate grants by Government to purchase books and furniture. There are also Bar Associations in each of the Taluk Courts at Shorapur, Chincholi, Seram, Chittapur, Aland and Yadgir.

CHAPTER XIII

OTHER DEPARTMENTS

IN the previous chapters, the work of some of the important administrative departments has been dealt with. The organisational set-up of various other departments like Public Works, Agriculture, Industries, Food Supplies, Transport, Commercial Taxes has been described in this chapter. The progress achieved in the activities of most of these departments has been noticed in the earlier chapters. Hence, mainly their administrative set up has been dealt with here.

Forest Department

The Divisional Forest Officer is the officer in charge of the administration of the department in the district. He is directly responsible to the Conservator of Forests, Bellary Circle, and through him to the Chief Conservator of Forests, Bangalore. The forest district has been divided into units called ranges. There were three ranges in the district in October, 1965. These three ranges were Chincholi, Bidar and Yadgir. Each forest range has been placed under the charge of a Range Forest Officer. The ranges are divided into sections and each section is under the charge of a forester. Further, each section is divided into beats, and each beat is under the charge of a forest guard. The forest-guard is assisted in his duties by a watcher. There were nine foresters and forty-five forest-guards in this division in October, 1965. Besides these officials, there were two Range Forest Officers, one forester and thirty-three watchers in the division who were in charge of special works. A training school has been established at Bidar under the development scheme to train forest-guards. One instructor, an assistant instructor and one police head constable constituted the staff associated with this training school. The Pilot Project Afforestation Scheme which has been started in this division is under the charge of a Range Forest Officer. This officer is being assisted in his duties by one forester and four forest guards.

The main function of this forest division is the afforestation of the State forests in the area. The department also maintains plantations, and village forests with a view to supplying

timber, firewood, minor forest produce and other requirements, besides protecting whatever natural vegetation that exists in the area. During the First and Second Five-Year Plan periods, large areas were tackled in order to artificially regenerate them. This work was continued on a more intensive scale in the Third Plan period also. The plantations are multi-purpose in their nature and they are raised under the various developmental schemes of the department.

Public Works Department

For purposes of public works administration, the district has been divided into two divisions, *viz.*, the Gulbarga Division and the Yadgir Division. The Gulbarga Division consists of the taluks of Gulbarga, Aland, Afzalpur, Chittapur, Chincholi and Seram, while the Yadgir Division consists of the taluks of Yadgir, Shahapur, Shorapur and Jevargi. Each taluk constitutes a public works sub-division and is under the charge of an Assistant Engineer. The sub-divisions located at Gulbarga, Aland and Chincholi are permanent sub-divisions, whereas the sub-divisions situated in Afzalpur, Chittapur and Seram are temporary in their nature. The following temporary sub-divisions were also functioning in Gulbarga town under the control of the Executive Engineer, Gulbarga Division. They are (1) the Buildings Sub-Division, No. 2, (2) the District Headquarters Hospital Sub-Division, (3) the Municipal Sub-Division, (4) the Roads and Bridges Investigation Sub-Division and (5) the Public Health Engineering Investigation Sub-Division. The Executive Engineer, Gulbarga Division, and the Executive Engineer, Yadgir Division, are responsible to the Superintending Engineer, Raichur Circle, in all administrative and technical matters.

The main functions of the Executive Engineer are the construction and maintenance of all Government buildings, roads, bridges, irrigation works and public health works within the jurisdiction of his division. He also executes major works of local bodies as per rules. The Executive Engineer is empowered to sanction all estimates of budgeted works up to Rs. 50,000. He is the technical adviser at the divisional level in all matters affecting the public works. He also scrutinises the estimates of the works taken up by other departments in his jurisdiction. He has been invested with a wide range of powers under the Public Works Code with a view to enabling him to carry out efficiently and expeditiously the various civil works entrusted to his care. His powers and functions have been specified, but do not preclude variations according to the developmental needs of the district. The Executive Engineer is a touring officer who has to go round his area for purposes of detailed inspection of roads, buildings, bridges, irrigation works, canals and the like. He is the *ex-officio* technical adviser to the municipalities and other local bodies. He is a member of the Regional Transport Authority Committee and several other

committees in the district. The powers of an Executive Engineer with reference to repairs and special repairs of works have been laid down, the limit in each case being specified. The Executive Engineer is empowered to call for tenders up to one lakh of rupees, provided the excess of the tender amount over the sanctioned estimate is not more than eight per cent of the latter. This is, however, subject to the overall condition that in all cases, only the lower or the lowest of more than one tender should be accepted. The Executive Engineer is assisted by a personal assistant in all technical and administrative matters and the personal assistant in his turn is assisted by a number of technical and ministerial officials in the division. There is also the drawing branch comprising draughtsmen who deal with the work connected with the calling of tenders, issue of orders, scrutiny of estimates up to twenty thousand rupees and the annual maintenance estimates pertaining to the different sub-divisions.

The Accounts Branch, headed by an Accounts Superintendent, deals with all the accounts of the division and the sub-divisions and in October 1965, it consisted of three first division accounts clerks and five second division accounts clerks entrusted with the work of scrutiny of bills and maintenance of accounts.

In October, 1965, the sanctioned strength including the temporary establishment, under the Executive Engineer, consisted of twelve Assistant Engineers including his Personal Assistant, twenty-nine Junior Engineers and forty-two Supervisors.

The Assistant Engineer, who is in charge of a sub-division is assisted in his duties by a number of sectional officers of the cadre of Junior Engineers and Supervisors in charge of works under a particular section. The number of supervisory staff in each sub-division is in proportion to the work-load The Assistant Engineers can sanction estimates up to Rs. 3,000 They can call for quotations for all public works up to Rs. 25,000 and obtain approval of the divisional office. They can make payment of bills up to Rs. 1,000. They have to check-measure all the works and are responsible for satisfactory execution of the works in their jurisdiction. The Assistant Engineers are also the Taluk Irrigation Officers. They are members of the Block Development Advisory Committees in their respective jurisdictions.

The Junior Engineers and the Supervisors are concerned with the preparation of project estimates, execution of works, supervision of works and recording measurements of works executed. They are also responsible for the preparation of bills for the works done, maintenance of roads, buildings, bridges, channels and avenue trees. They regulate the supply of water in respect of

irrigation works under the control of the Public Works Department.

Agricultural Department

The District Agricultural Officer, Gulbarga district, is in charge of the agricultural activities in the district. He is directly responsible to the Deputy Director of Agriculture, Raichur Division. He is assisted in his duties by ten agricultural demonstrators stationed in each taluk. An additional agricultural demonstrator is attached to the office of the District Agricultural Officer at Gulbarga. The District Agricultural Officer is in overall charge of the administration of the district regarding chalking out programmes under agriculture and executing them. An Assistant Biochemist assists the District Agricultural Officer in connection with the manufacture of compost. The District Agricultural Officer is also assisted at his head office by one Plant Protection Assistant. There is also one Plant Protection Assistant stationed at Yadgir. There were also four field assistants functioning at Gulbarga and Yadgir under the Plant Protection Scheme. There were seven seed farms located at Kotnur, Seram, Yadgir, Aland, Chowdapura, Raddewadgi and Mattigudur in October, 1965. All these farms were under the charge of managers. In addition to the manager, the staff provided for each seed farm consisted of one fieldman, one bullock cart-man and a watchman.

The main functions and duties of the departmental staff in the district are to give technical advice to the cultivators in order to raise different crops and to carry on propaganda on scientific methods of agriculture as directed by the head office. The department has to supply improved seeds, implements, chemicals, fertilisers, green manure and fruit plants and has to take timely control measures with reference to pests and diseases of plants and crops in the taluks. The service of tractors and bulldozers is made available by the department to the cultivators. Loans and subsidy are granted to improve irrigation wells to bring a larger area under cultivation.

One agricultural demonstrator and two field assistants were functioning under the Local Manurial Resources Scheme.

Under the Oilseeds Development Scheme, three agricultural demonstrators were functioning at Gulbarga, Yadgir and Shahapur, and eight field assistants were working at Gulbarga, Chittapur, Aland, Yadgir, Afzalpur, Shahapur, Shorapur and Jevargi.

There was an additional District Agricultural Officer for the Intensive Cultivation Scheme at Gulbarga. He was being assisted in his duties by five agricultural demonstrators and twenty-five field assistants.

Animal Husbandry Department

The animal husbandry activities of the district are being attended to by the District Officer, Animal Husbandry and Veterinary Services, Gulbarga. This officer looks after the veterinary institutions giving directions to the qualified veterinarians who are in charge of their respective veterinary institutions. Stockmen or locally trained personnel are stationed in various rural areas of the district. These men are under the guidance and control of the qualified veterinarians located in all taluk headquarters. The veterinary staff of the taluk headquarters are primarily responsible for the health and development activities pertaining to livestock within their respective areas.

The District Officer has to supervise the work of the stockmen working in the rural areas and in times of emergency, he has powers to locate the stockmen anywhere within his jurisdiction.

At the commencement of the First Five-Year Plan there was only one Veterinary Hospital at Gulbarga and six veterinary dispensaries in six taluks including Gulbarga taluk. During the First Five-Year Plan period, eight veterinary dispensaries were opened. During the Second Five-Year Plan period, six dispensaries were up-graded and six new veterinary dispensaries were established. Also two veterinary dispensaries were opened under the National Extension Service Scheme. Thus, there were twenty-two veterinary dispensaries in the district at the end of the Second Five-Year Plan.

During the Third Five-Year Plan period, it had been proposed to start six rural veterinary dispensaries of which five had been opened by December 1965. A Key Village Scheme for improvement of livestock was started at Gulbarga with effect from 31st January 1961, at a cost of Rs. 0.50 lakh. In order to improve the quality of cattle, in rural areas, it was proposed to supply thirty stud bulls at a cost of Rs. 0.15 lakh and sixteen stud bulls had been already supplied and besides, two artificial insemination centres were proposed to be started at a cost of Rs. 0.80 lakh The holding of cattle shows was expected to cost Rs. 0.10 lakh A poultry extension centre was started at Gulbarga at a cost of Rs. 1.50 lakhs under the Poultry Development Scheme A clinical laboratory at a cost of Rs. 0.50 lakh was also proposed to be established during the Third Five-Year Plan period.

The office associated with the milk supply scheme at Gulbarga started functioning with effect from 2nd July 1964. The scheme was estimated to cost Rs. 8 lakhs, and it constituted one of the important items in the development programme of the department under the Third Five-Year Plan. A place in Kapanur hamlet was selected as the site for the

location of the project and steps were being taken to acquire the land in question.

The office of the Superintendent, Sheep and Wool Development Scheme, also started functioning at Gulbarga with effect from 29th March 1964. This officer has been empowered to undertake extensive touring in the district so as to enable him to collect the necessary data with a view to establishing new centres in the district for purposes of developing the scheme further.

Statistical Department

A District Statistical Office has been established in Gulbarga in charge of a Statistical Officer who is responsible to the Director of Statistics, Bangalore. This officer collects statistical data from various sources, correlates, analyses and and publicises them for public information after obtaining the necessary approval from the head office at Bangalore. This officer was being assisted in his duties by two Senior Statistical Assistants in October 1965.

Social Welfare Department

The District Social Welfare Officer is in charge of the administration of the department in the district. He works as the executive assistant to the Deputy Commissioner in connection with the work of implementing the various social welfare schemes in the district. But he is under the administrative control of the Director of Social Welfare, Bangalore. He is the controlling officer in respect of the welfare schools functioning in the district. He is also responsible for implementing the various schemes connected with women's welfare. He is assisted in his duties by social welfare inspectors, women welfare organisers, conductresses and Superintendents of Social Welfare institutions. He is responsible for the enforcement of the Untouchability Offences Act. He has to promote the social, economic, educational and cultural interests of the Scheduled Castes, Scheduled Tribes and De-notified Tribes, with the co-operation of the various district officers. He also assists persons belonging to the Scheduled Castes to secure suitable appointments.

The Social Welfare Inspectors for Scheduled Castes/Tribes, who work at the taluk level, are under the administrative control of the concerned Block Development Officer and the District Social Welfare Officer. They render necessary assistance to the Block Development Officers in connection with the work of implementing the various schemes drawn up for the welfare of the Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes.

The following social legislations and schemes are being implemented in Gulbarga district:—

1. Mysore Children's Act, 1964.

2. Suppression of Immoral Traffic in Women and Girls Act, 1956.

3. Probation of Offenders Act, 1958.

4. Welfare Services in Prisons (Aid to released prisoners).

Remand Home

A Remand Home at Gulbarga was opened during the year 1960-61 for being used as a place of safety for children coming under the provisions of the Children's Act. The sanctioned accommodation is forty. Children taken charge of under the provisions of the Act are remanded to this institution pending disposal of their cases by the juvenile court. The officer in charge of the Remand Home, designated as District Probation Officer, is responsible for instituting home enquiries of children detained in the Remand Home and for submitting his report to the juvenile court suggesting treatment programme. The children, who need institutional treatment are committed to the certified school in which facilities for imparting training in different vocations are provided.

Certified School

The Certified School at Gulbarga was also established during the year 1960-61 with accommodation for about hundred children. The officer in charge of the administration of the school is designated as the Superintendent. He is responsible to the Chief Inspector of Certified Schools, Bangalore. The Deputy Superintendent is in charge of character training of children and he aids the Superintendent in the discharge of his executive duties. He makes enquiries in respect of children committed to the certified school and maintains their records.

The Certified School has provided for long-term institutional treatment and for the education and training of children committed to the school under the Act.

State Rescue Home

The State Rescue Home, Gulbarga, was started during the year 1959-60, for being used as a protective home for women and girls rescued under the Suppression of Immoral Traffic Act and for providing after-care facilities to women in distress or in moral danger or unmarried mothers or deserted wives. The Superintendent of the Rescue Home is a gazetted officer. He was being assisted in his duties by a Probation Officer, a visiting Medical Officer, one Matron, one Assistant Matron, one craft instructor, one supervisor, one part-time compounder, and the necessary ministerial and other staff in October 1965.

Aid to released prisoners

A Liaison Officer was appointed during 1959-60 for providing welfare facilities for the released prisoners. The Liaison Officer's work is to visit the Central Prison for interviewing prisoners to be released and to make efforts in finding suitable employment or

to provide other rehabilitation facilities. A hostel is attached to his office where released prisoners are given shelter for some days in case of emergency if they have no homes to go immediately after their release from prison. A care-taker assists the Liaison Officer in his work.

Probation of Offenders Act

The Probation of Offenders Act, 1958, which was brought into force in the State with effect from 1st October 1960, has been extended to this district also. The method of probation and supervision, which has proved very useful in respect of juveniles under the Children's Act, has been extended in the case of adult offenders above 16 years of age under the Probation of Offenders Act. This method has definite advantages over imprisonment as it obviates the frustrating and disintegrating effects which imprisonment may leave on the personality of the individual.

The Probation Officer has to attend the courts of the Judicial Magistrates for receiving cases of enquiry under the Act, and to supervise over the probationers, who are released on probation of good conduct and kept under his supervision.

Labour Department

The administration of labour Department is carried on with the help of five divisional offices located at Bangalore, Mysore, Gulbarga, Hubli and Chickmagalur, each under the charge of an Assistant Labour Commissioner. Gulbarga Division has jurisdiction over the districts of Gulbarga, Bidar, Raichur and Bellary with headquarters at Gulbarga. The Assistant Labour Commissioner, Gulbarga is also the Conciliation Officer of the division. He was being assisted in his duties, in October, 1965, by some ministerial staff and two Labour Officers, each such Labour Officer being in charge of a sub-division. The Assistant Labour Commissioner is directly responsible to the Commissioner of Labour, Bangalore.

The Divisional Assistant Labour Commissioner and the Labour Officers have been notified as Inspectors under the provisions of the Mysore Shops and Commercial Establishments Act, the Weekly Holidays Act, the Minimum Wages Act and the Payment of Wages Act. The Labour Officer, Gulbarga, is also an additional Inspector under the Factories Act. He has jurisdiction over both Gulbarga and Bidar districts. There are two Labour Inspectors in the district, with their headquarters at Gulbarga, functioning under the control of the Labour Officer, Gulbarga. In October 1965, the Labour Officer was being assisted in his duties by some ministerial staff and the two Labour Inspectors.

There is a labour welfare centre at Gulbarga which caters for the cultural, educational and recreational needs of the labour folk. This centre is under the control of the Labour Officer Gulbarga.

A staff consisting of one supervisor and two class IV officials was assisting him at this centre, in October, 1965.

The Labour Inspectors enforce the provisions of the Mysore Shops and Commercial Establishments Act, the Weekly Holidays Act and Minimum Wages Act in their respective jurisdictions.

Inspector of Factories

The jurisdiction of the Inspector of Factories, Gulbarga Division, Gulbarga, extends over the districts of Gulbarga, Bidar and Bijapur. He is responsible to the Chief Inspector of Factories and Boilers in Mysore, Bangalore, through the Senior Inspector of Factories, Hubli region. This officer has to inspect the factories and small industrial establishments and to implement the provisions of Indian Factories Act, 1948, the Employment of Children Act and Hyderabad Factories Rules, 1952, as in force in the district. He has to see that all the factories coming under his jurisdiction, follow the statutory obligations imposed under the Act. He was being assisted in his duties by a staff consisting of one 1st division clerk, one 2nd division clerk and two dalayats in October, 1965

District Employment Officer

The Employment Exchange which functions under the control of the District Employment Officer is meant to give assistance to such of those who are in need of employment. This officer was being assisted in his duties by one Junior Statistical Officer, one first division clerk, one second division clerk, one typist and three dalayats, in October 1965. The District Employment Officer is under the direct administrative control of the Director of Employment and Training, Bangalore.

Archaeological Department

There is no special District Officer in charge of the administration of the Archaeological Department However, a few members of the staff of the department are working in the district in connection with the maintenance of monuments. A surveyor and a few chowkidars or watchmen attend to the general up-keep of certain important monuments. There is also a regional museum at Gulbarga with an Assistant Curator and other staff under the control of this department. All the powers regarding the functioning of the department in the district are exercised by the Director of Archaeology, Mysore.

Civil Supplies Department

An Inspector of Civil Supplies is functioning in the district with Gulbarga as his headquarters. He is in charge of Gulbarga and Bidar districts and he also exercises supervision over the work of the two Assistant Inspectors of Civil Supplies stationed at Raichur and Bellary. He works under the direct control of the Assistant Director of Industries and Commerce, Gulbarga. When

cement control was in force, the Inspector of Civil Supplies had to check the stocks and look into the accounts of licensed cement dealers and watch the regular renewal of cement licences and had to bring to the notice of the Controller of Civil Supplies and stocking of cement by any person without having obtained a licence for the same. He has to scrutinise the accounts of dealers in iron and steel and scrap metal and also of quota-holders. He has to see that the dealers in cotton obtain licences and has to carry out the instructions issued by the Controller of Civil Supplies and the Assistant Director of Industries and Commerce, Gulbarga, under the Cotton and Textile Control Orders. He has to make a report about the illegal possession of any unregistered and unauthorised powerlooms by any person and has to attend to any work that the Controller of Civil Supplies might allot to him with reference to the registered and authorised power-looms.

In addition to these duties, the Inspector of Civil Supplies collects and furnishes periodical statements about the wholesale and retail prices of varieties of cloth and yarn. Further, he forwards fortnightly reports on the various measures adopted by the Indian Cotton Mills Federation for regularising the prices of cloth and yarn. He also forwards fortnightly reports relating to the retail prices of certain essential commodities as required by the Planning Commission, Government of India, New Delhi. He has to submit reports about the stock position and the ruling prices of any of the essential commodities that have become dear in the market, whenever such reports are called for by the Controller of Civil Supplies Bangalore.

Food Supplies Department

The Food Supplies Department is a temporary department which came into existence during the early years after the outbreak of the Second World War. It is being continued from time to time with varying strength and varying functions depending on the nature and extent of food controls in force at the time.

The Deputy Commissioner, Gulbarga, is the officer in charge of the administration of the department in the district. He is responsible to the Director of Food Supplies, Bangalore. He is the licensing authority in respect of various orders issued by the Government from time to time.

Powers have been delegated to him to write off losses due to shortages, etc., as detailed in the Manual of Financial Powers, 1959.

His functions comprise, among others, watching of the supply position and price trends of essential foodgrains in the district, authorising the opening of fair price depots, equitable allocation

among the taluks of food grains and sugar which are allotted to the district, furnishing to the head of the department and Government the various periodical statistical returns prescribed in this behalf and generally taking such measures as may be necessary from time to time in consonance with the food policy of Government and the Acts and Rules in force to regulate the supplies of essential foodgrains in the district.

The Deputy Commissioner is in direct charge of all matters relating to food supplies in the district, and the Tahsildars of taluks are in charge of the administration of food supplies in their respective jurisdictions.

The Deputy Commissioner was being assisted in his duties, in October 1965, by one Assistant Commissioner (Food), one Tahsildar for work in connection with the distribution of foodgrains, one Superintendent of Government Godowns, one Deputy Tahsildar (Food), one Accounts Superintendent, six first division assistants, six second division assistants, one senior godown keeper, one junior godown keeper, one food inspector and eight class IV officials.

The Tahsildars of the several taluks in the district were also being assisted in their duties connected with the work of food supplies by first division assistants, procurement revenue inspectors and purchasing inspectors.

Horticultural Department

For purposes of horticultural development in the district, there is one District Horticultural Inspector at Gulbarga. He is an independent officer in the district and is directly responsible to the Director of Horticulture, Bangalore, who is the head of the department. The District Horticultural Inspector visits the places where his services are required in connection with the development of horticulture and gives advice and technical help with reference to the cultivation of fruits, vegetables and flowers, maintenance of orchards, farms, gardens, and parks, introduction of new varieties of fruits, flowers and vegetables suited to the local climatic conditions. He sends the fieldmen or the spraying attenders to attend to the needs of the public in connection with the above works, and does propaganda work by exhibiting charts and the like and issuing fruit plants of genuine quality and vegetable seeds to the cultivators in local jatras and the public meetings organised by the Block Development Officers. He also devotes his attention to the lay-out of bungalow gardens, kitchen gardens, and inspection of lands for planting fruit trees and vegetables. He takes measures to control pests and diseases of plants. He was being assisted in his duties by one agricultural demonstrator, two field assistants and two fieldmen, one plant propagator, one spraying attender and ten malis, in October 1965.

Department of Mines and Geology

A Divisional Office of the Department of Mines and Geology is functioning at Gulbarga since 1958, with its administrative jurisdiction over three districts, *viz.*, Gulbarga, Bidar and Raichur. This office has been placed under the administrative control of a Geologist, a gazetted officer. This officer is working under the direction of the Director of Mines and Geology and is responsible to him in carrying out the administration in the divisional office. The following are the administrative and technical functions of the Geologist :—

(1) attending to the mineral survey and prospecting and mining ;

(2) conducting of soil survey of selected areas in co-ordination, when found necessary, with the Agricultural and Forest Departments ;

(3) tendering of advice on water supply and engineering problems ;

(4) administration of mines and minerals ;

(5) collection of mining revenue ; and

(6) to advise the Deputy Commissioner and other District Officers on geological matters which they may refer.

The Geologist was being assisted in his duties by two Assistant Geologists, one Surveyor, and one Assistant Draughtsman and other ministerial staff in October 1965.

The Assistant Geologists carry on mineral survey and prospecting work in selected areas and assist the Geologist in his executive and technical work. The Surveyor surveys and demarcates the mining lease areas granted under mineral concessions in the division.

The Draughtsman prepares the geological and mineral maps and sections with the data supplied by the technical officers.

The mineral survey and mapping conducted by the Divisional Office, so far, has resulted in the location of gold, gypsum, Fuller's earth, limestone, copper, kyanite, kaolin, ochres, soapstone, moulding sand, silica sand and precious gemstones.

Registration Department

The Registration Department as such was established in the district in the year 1888 A.D. by the Government of Hyderabad. At first, the Tahsildars and Munsiff-Magistrates of taluks were appointed *ex-officio* Sub-Registrars of their respective taluks. They were entitled to get a certain percentage of the fees collected

towards registration fees as remuneration. At the district level, the District and Sessions Judges were appointed as *ex-officio* District Registrars. Later on, the system of appointing full-time Sub-Registrars was brought into force and they were made to work under the control of the District and Sessions Judges who were *ex-officio* District Registrars as stated above. In the year 1952, the Deputy Commissioners were appointed as *ex-officio* District Registrars instead of the District and Sessions Judges.

The Deputy Commissioner of Gulbarga district who is the *ex-officio* District Registrar is the officer in charge of the administration of the department in the district. He is directly responsible to the Inspector-General of Registration, Bangalore. He exercises general supervision over all the Sub-Registry Offices located in the district. He has authority to issue any order consistent with the Indian Registration Act, in respect of any act or omission of any Sub-Registrar subordinate to him or in respect of rectification of any error in the book or the office in which any document has been registered under Section 68 of the Registration Act. He conducts inspections and approves the registration effected under Section 30(1) of the Registration Act. He also conducts enquiries on appeal petitions preferred under Section 72(1) of the Act.

The Sub-Registry Offices are located at Gulbarga, Yadgir, Chittapur, Seram, Shorapur, Shahapur, Afzalpur and Aland. Each office is under a Sub-Registrar, who attends to all the duties connected with the registration work in his jurisdiction. The Sub-Registrars have been appointed as the Registrars of money-lenders who are issued licences to carry on their business. They are also appointed as the marriage officers under the Special Marriages Act, 1954, within their jurisdiction. They are responsible for the preservation of birth and death registers received from the Revenue Department.

Commercial Taxes Department

There are two Commercial Tax Officers in the district to attend to the work of assessments under the various statutes. They are the Commercial Tax Officer, Gulbarga, and the Commercial Tax Officer, Yadgir. The former exercises jurisdiction over the taluks of Gulbarga, Aland, Afzalpur and Jevargi, while the latter exercises jurisdiction over the taluks of Yadgir, Shahapur, Shorapur, Seram, Chittapur and Chincholi. In addition to these two Commercial Tax Officers, there are two Assistant Commercial Tax Officers stationed at Gulbarga and Yadgir. These two officers assist the Commercial Tax Officers in their duties.

The office of the Agricultural Income Tax Officer has been functioning at Gulbarga with effect from 1st April 1964. This officer has jurisdiction over both Gulbarga and Bidar districts.

The Commercial Tax Officers, the Assistant Commercial Tax Officers and the Agricultural Income-Tax Officer are assisted in their duties by Commercial Tax Inspectors and ministerial staff.

The Commercial Tax Officers and the Assistant Commercial Tax Officers are independent registering and assessing authorities. They are directly responsible to the Deputy Commissioner of Commercial Taxes, Gulbarga Division, Bellary, and the Commissioner of Commercial Taxes, Bangalore. The Acts administered by the Commercial Taxes Department are the Mysore Sales Tax Act, 1957, the Mysore Sales of Motor Spirit Taxation Act, 1957, the Mysore Entertainment Tax Act, 1958, and the Central Sales Tax Act, 1956. The Agricultural Income-Tax Officer administers the Mysore Agricultural Income-Tax Act, 1958.

The Commercial Tax Officers are the appellate authorities under the Mysore Entertainment Tax Act, 1958, while the Assistant Commercial Tax Officers are also designated as Entertainment Tax Officers.

The Deputy Commissioner of Commercial Taxes, Gulbarga Division, Bellary, is the administering authority for the entire division and also the appellate and revision authority against the orders of the Commercial Tax Officers and Agricultural Income-Tax Officers under all Acts except the Mysore Sugarcane Cess Act, 1958. There is an Assistant Commissioner of Commercial Taxes for Gulbarga Division stationed at Bellary. The duties of this officer are to check evasion of Sales Tax and inspection of offices. He is the appellate and revision authority under the Mysore Sales-Tax Act and the Central Sales-Tax Act against the orders of the Assistant Commercial Tax Officers. He is subordinate to the Deputy Commissioner of Commercial Taxes, Gulbarga Division, and the Commissioner of Commercial Taxes, Bangalore.

Industries Department

The Assistant Director of Industries and Commerce, Gulbarga, is in charge of the work of the Department in the district. He is responsible to the Director of Industries and Commerce, Bangalore. He assists the Director in the execution of departmental plans and policies for the development of industry and commerce in general in the district. The main functions of the Assistant Director are undertaking of industrial surveys, collection of statistical information, drawing of schemes and plans for the development of industries, exercising supervision over the activities of Industrial Co-operative Societies and giving them guidance, supervision of the activities of the Mahila Samajas, which have received assistance from the department, watching of the progress of work of the Industrial Extension Officers in the Development Blocks of the district, according of technical sanction to the industrial programmes in the Blocks and arranging for their successful imple-

mentation. He has also to give effect to the plans and schemes pertaining to industries such as handlooms, silk, handicrafts, coir and small-scale industries, khadi and village industries, to recommend deserving cases for issue of machinery under hire-purchase scheme from the National Small Industries Corporation, New Delhi, to guide the small-scale industries in the matter of location and procurement of raw materials, and to give technical guidance to the industrialists and to examine loan records under the Mysore State Aid to Industries Act, 1959. The other items of work entrusted to the Assistant Director are the inspection of factories and other industrial establishments, implementation of rural industrial schemes and supervision over the activities of industrial co-operative societies, distribution of controlled commodities like coal, coke, iron, steel and copper and verification of the requirements of the industrialists for grant of essentiality certificates.

The Assistant Director was being assisted in his work by technical staff consisting of one Senior Industrial Supervisor, one Junior Industrial Supervisor, one District Weaving Supervisor, one District Industrial Auditor, two Weaving Demonstrators, one Technical Assistant under power-looms scheme, one Jobber, and eight Industiral Extension Officers one for each Block, in October 1965. These extension officers work under the administrative control of Block Development Officers and technical control of the Assistant Director.

The Industrial Supervisors and the Extension Officers are empowered under various Government Orders to supervise and inspect as and when necessary, all the Rural Industrial Co-operative Societies and institutions like the handloom emporia, Mahila Samajas, craft societies and prepare statistical data relating to schemes in their respective jurisdictions. The District Weaving Supervisor assists the Assistant Director in all matters relating to the textile branch with the assistance of weaving demonstrators.

The Jobber is concerned with the installation of powerlooms, introduction of new designs and patterns and maintenance and repair of the looms already installed. He has to see that the looms which have been sanctioned are utilised for the specific purpose for which they have been sanctioned.

The District Industrial Auditor conducts audit of accounts of all the industrial co-operative societies except handloom weavers' co-operative societies. He attends to the rectification of defects pointed out by audit, detection of misappropriation cases and proper maintenance of accounts of the industrial co-operative societies. He assists the Assistant Director in taking legal action either civil or criminal or both.

Publicity and Information Department

The Assistant Director of Publicity and Information, Gulbarga Division, is in charge of publicity and propaganda work in the four districts of Gulbarga, Raichur, Bidar and Bellary, constituting the Division. At the district level, he is assisted by a District Publicity Officer and a Radio Supervisor, Rural Broadcasting. While the District Publicity Officer carries out publicity on various developmental activities and welfare measures undertaken by Government through films, exhibitions, press releases etc., the Radio Supervisor looks after the installation and maintenance of Community Listening (Radio) Sets in villages.

The District Publicity Office has been provided with a mobile publicity van fitted with necessary equipment for carrying out film publicity work as also a Tape Recorder and a Transistor for propaganda work.

While the District Publicity Officer is directly responsible to the Assistant Director of Publicity and Information, Gulbarga, the latter works under the overall supervision of the Director of Publicity and Information, Bangalore.

Transport Department

With effect from 1st January 1958, each revenue district of the State of Mysore was constituted into a separate region for better administration of the Transport Department and Gulbarga district, like other districts, became a separate unit and has been functioning as such since then. The Regional Transport Authority, which is a quasi-judicial body consists of the Deputy Commissioner as Chairman, the District Superintendent of Police and the Executive Engineer, Gulbarga Division, as members. The Regional Transport Officer, Gulbarga, is the Secretary of the Regional Transport Authority. He is the executive officer exercising the powers delegated to him by the Regional Transport Authority. He is also the district departmental officer carrying out the administrative functions delegated to him under the Motor Vehicles Act. He is responsible to the Commissioner for Transport, Bangalore. As the registering authority in respect of motor vehicles, the Regional Transport Officer exercises the following functions :—

(*a*) registration of motor vehicles,
(*b*) transfer of ownerships of motor vehicles,
(*c*) issue of trade certificates, and
(*d*) suspension or cancellation of registration certificates of motor vehicles.

The Regional Transport Officer was being assisted in his duties by two Inspectors of motor vehicles and some ministerial staff, in October 1965. The duties of these Inspectors are to inspect all motor vehicles for the issue of fitness certificates, and whenever accidents occur, they have to go to the spot and inspect the

vehicles and certify whether they are fit for plying. They are also required to check motor vehicles by surprise while they are plying on the roads and to ensure that no vehicles ply without paying the prescribed tax amount. They have also to see that the vehicles are quite fit for use on the roads and that they satisfy the requirements of the Indian Motor Vehicles Act. They have also to conduct route surveys with reference to traffic potentialities of the various routes. The Regional Transport Officer is also the licensing authority for the issue of licences to the drivers and certificates to the conductors. Tests for driving are conducted by the Inspectors of Motor Vehicles under supervision of the Regional Transport Officer and a candidate is issued a licence for driving a vehicle after ensuring that he is really fit to do so. Similarly, candidates possessing First Aid Certificates and good antecedents are alone issued certificates to operate as conductors.

Land Records and Settlement

The Superintendent of Land Records, Gulbarga Division, is in charge of the administration of the division, which comprises the three revenue districts of Gulbarga, Raichur and Bidar. In October 1965, under this officer there was one Assistant Superintendent of Land Records for *hissa* survey work in Gulbarga and Raichur districts. Also, there were three District Survey Officers for the three districts of Gulbarga, Raichur and Bidar. The Superintendent of Land Records, Gulbarga, is directly responsible to the Commissioner for Settlement and Land Records, Bangalore He has to conduct inspection of the offices of the three District Survey Officers, and the office of the Assistant Superintendent of Land Records, Gulbarga and Raichur districts. He checks the *hissa* survey, *phodi* and demarcation work done by the above officers and in addition to this, he conducts the inspection of land records sections in Taluk Offices. He also decides the appeal cases in respect of boundary disputes dealt with by the District Survey Officers of the three districts of Gulbarga, Raichur and Bidar.

The Superintendent of Land Records was being assisted in his duties also by one first division surveyor and some ministerial staff, in October 1965.

Each District Survey Officer was being assisted in his work by a supervisor, a taluk surveyor and some ministerial staff. The supervisor conducts boundary stone inspections and scrutinises the work of the taluk surveyor. The taluk surveyor is the primary agency in undertaking the survey work of all the lands in his area. The supervisor has to devote his attention to urgent and important measurement work in the district as per the orders of the District Survey Officer. This officer decides the appeal cases preferred with reference to the measurement work carried out by the supervisor and the taluk surveyors. The supervisor also arranges for the inspection of the *phodi* work done by the taluk surveyor.

CHAPTER XIV

LOCAL SELF-GOVERNMENT

HAVING regard to the fact that Gulbarga district constituted a part of the old Hyderabad State prior to the reorganisation of States in 1956, when it was integrated with the State of Mysore, it may not be out of place to trace here briefly the growth and development of Local Self-Government in Hyderabad State.

Beginnings of Local Bodies

It was Sir Salar Jung I who first introduced municipal administration in the old Hyderabad State in 1869 A.D., when he was the Prime Minister of that State. A special committee consisting of six members, two of whom were representatives of the people and four of paigahs and other estates, was appointed to look after the local self-governing bodies. The executive head of the municipality was styled as Superintendent of Roads. He was also the President of the Municipal Committee. Disputes between the municipality and the public were settled by a few respectable persons appointed for the purpose and who were invested with the powers of a Small Cause Court to dispose of money suits to the tune of Rs. 20. The evolution of the municipal administration from small beginnings to one of accepted standards was governed by the exigencies of the situation. In conformity with the needs of the times, changes were made in the constitution of municipal committees. In 1894, the municipal committees in various places consisted of nine officials and five non-officials, all nominated by Government.

In 1877, the Local Boards Regulation was promulgated authorising the levy of a local cess of one anna in the rupee of land revenue in all settled tracts. This regulation established Local Boards in the districts of the State with certain defined powers to administer the funds. The powers were described in the Regulation of 1899, a later amended Act and the Local Boards were permitted to prepare annual budgets, spend substantial sums from the previous year's balance and to supervise works through technical agencies. A Central Board was also set up to control and supervise the Local Boards. Some years later, this Central

Board was abolished and its functions devolved on the departments of Revenue, Education and Medicine, in so far as the funds allocated to the departments were concerned.

The District Board constituted under the regulation consisted of seven official members, the Talukdar as *ex-officio* president and seven non-official members nominated by Government. The Taluk Boards were subordinate to the District Board and consisted of four officials including the Tahsildar and four non-official members nominated by the Government on the recommendation of the District Board. The power of nomination to Taluk Boards was delegated to the Subedars who were in charge of revenue divisions.

Early Legislations

The Local Cess Act was enacted in 1900 and was subsequently amended in 1908, 1910 and 1940 to suit the changing conditions. The main object of the parent Act and its amendments was to lay a firm foundation of municipal administration in the towns. Although the constitution of Municipal and Town Committees was envisaged in the Local Cess Act of 1900, the committees did not come into existence till 1934. Instead, the Taluk and District Boards were functioning as municipal committees. In 1934, the State Government sanctioned the constitution of municipal committees with a non-official majority for all the district headquarters and other big towns, while rules for setting up town committees in smaller towns were also framed. The municipal committees so formed consisted of a president (senior revenue officer), twelve non-official members and three official members.

The outstanding feature of the Local Fund administration of the past was the combination of the district and town finances with the unavoidable result that the towns, specially the headquarters towns, were benefited from the funds collected in the villages. Even in 1913, it was observed that one of the causes of complaint at the time of the institution of Local Boards was that the Local Funds were mostly spent at the headquarters of the district resulting in the neglect of tahsils. Although the local cess was collected from the villages, only a very small amount was spent for the benefit of the villages. Even between 1921 and 1928, the position was no better. It was realised then that no improvements could be expected as long as the income from the cess collected from the raiyats continued to be utilised for expenditure in the towns. A preliminary step was taken in 1929 to separate the district and town budgets whereby it became impossible for the District Boards to spend any but the allotted contribution from the Local Funds on the towns. Thus, more money became available after 1930 for expenditure in villages.

In 1941-42, the following regulations were enforced for purposes of better administration of local self-governing bodies :

(1) The Hyderabad District Boards Act, (2) the Hyderabad Municipal and Town Committees Act, (3) the Sanitary Powers Act, (4) the Hyderabad Village Panchayat Act and (5) the Local Authorities Loan Act. With the promulgation of these Acts, the administration of the Local Self-Government Department entered a new phase of development. The regulations provided for elections to local bodies on the basis of interests and also for nomination of members in the following proportion—(*a*) in the case of district boards, for every five elected, three nominated members, (*b*) in the case of municipal committees, for every two members elected, one nominated member. Provision was also made for the constitution of interim district boards and municipal committees consisting solely of nominated members till elections were held. The Acts passed in 1941-42 gave a wider scope to the local bodies for the levy of local taxes and for building up stable finances. Although the local bodies consisted of only nominated members, sufficient progress was made in the general administration of the local self-governing institutions and also in providing necessary amenities to the people.

Later Measures

Till the year 1946, the Local Self-Government Department was a branch of the Secretariat of the Revenue Department. With the expansion of the activities of the Local Self-Government Department, it was considered expedient to have a separate secretariat. Accordingly, a separate Local Self-Government Secretariat came into existence in 1946. After the police action in the year 1948, there was a persistent demand for the replacement of old Acts by progressive ones in consonance with the spirit of the times and the replacement of nominated local bodies by elected local bodies so that democratic units of administration might begin to function and cater for the needs of the public in a responsible and responsive manner. The necessity for the enactment of two new Acts was realised by the Government and the following Acts were enacted. They were (1) the Hyderabad Municipal Corporation Act of 1950 and (2) the Hyderabad Municipal and Town Committees Act of 1951. With the enforcement of these new Acts, elections were held to constitute afresh town municipalities.

For the first time in the history of local self-governing institutions in the State, the system of adult suffrage was introduced in the elections held during 1952-53. Only in the case of District Boards, did the nominated element still remain. Immediately after the popular Ministry took charge, it was decided to replace the old Act by a progressive new Act. A new Act called the Hyderabad District Municipalities Act was passed in the year 1956.

There were four city municipalities and six town municipalities in the district which were constituted under the Hyderabad Distrcit Municipalities Act. Elections were held in the year

1960 and the re-constituted municipalities were functioning in the district since then. The four city municipalities were those of Gulbarga, Shorapur, Aland and Yadgir. The six town municipalities were Shahapur, Chittapur, Seram, Shahabad, Chincholi and Gurmatkal.

With the promulgation of the uniform Mysore Municipalities Act, 1964, from 1st April 1965, there are now one City Municipal Council at Gulbarga and nine town Municipal Councils at Yadgir, Aland, Shorapur, Shahapur, Chittapur, Seram, Shahabad, Chincholi and Gurmatkal. Gulbarga is the only town in the district that has a population of more than 50,000.

City Municipality, Gulbarga

Gulbarga city is the district headquarters, where the Deputy Commissioner's Office and Divisional Offices are located. It is also the headquarters of the Divisional Commissioner, Gulbarga Division. The city is fairly big and the area of the municipality is over 10 square miles. The population of the city, as per the census of 1961 was 97,159. The municipality was first established in the year 1945. Prior to that, the civic affairs were being managed by the District Board. Elections were held in the year 1952 for the re-constitution of the municipal council.

Elections were last held in the month of April 1964. The city was divided into thirty-one wards. There were thirty-four members on the council. Three seats were reserved for members belonging to the Scheduled Castes. All the members are elected once in three years on the basis of adult franchise.

As a writ petition was filed with reference to one of the wards, the new body could not be constituted. As a result, the municipality was functioning under the supervision of an Administrator appointed by the Government (Assistant Commissioner, Gulbarga Revenue Sub-Division) since 6th of June 1964. The newly elected council assumed charge on 15th of June 1965 and is functioning since then.

A tank called the Bhosga tank, situated at a distance of six miles from the city, is the source of water supply to the place. The water from this tank is cleaned and chlorinated in the filter beds and distributed through pipes to the people of the city. There were, in March 1965, three hundred and eighteen public taps and three thousand six hundred and seventy private taps in the city. On an average, fifteen to eighteen gallons of protected water per head are being supplied to the people daily.

New Water Supply Scheme

In order to meet the needs of the growing population of Gulbarga City, the State Government decided to implement a comprehensive water supply scheme costing Rs. 90 lakhs. The

Chief Minister of Mysore laid the foundation stone for this new venture on 3rd October 1965. When completed in about four years, this scheme ensures copious supply of filtered water at 30 gallons per head for an eventual population of two lakhs. According to details of the scheme, improvements and additions to the existing works will be effected at a cost of Rs. 28.50 lakhs. In addition, water will be drawn from the Bennitora river to augment the existing supply at a cost of Rs. 36.50 lakhs. Improvements in the distribution system will be done at a cost of Rs. 25 lakhs. The gravity method, which is working well will be continued to the maximum extent.

To prevent wastage by seepage and evaporation, the existing masonry conduit from the Bhosga tank will be replaced by a 30 inch diameter gravity main. It is also proposed to heighten the bund and weir of the Bhosga tank to take in more water. Both the purificatory plant and the service reservoir near the existing filter beds are proposed to be remodelled to meet the growing needs.

There is no underground drainage in the city; it is served by surface drains. The municipal authorities sanctioned a sum of Rs. 50,000 for undertaking survey work in connection with the laying of underground drains. The survey work has been completed and an estimate for Rs. 48 lakhs has been prepared and submitted to Government for sanction. The municipality has requested the Government for sanctioning this amount as a loan to it. It has taken up a land acquisition and development scheme costing about Rs. 30 lakhs. The Government have sanctioned a loan of Rs. 4 lakhs in this connection.

The municipality is not running any milk supply centre or educational institutions in the city. It is running a library. It also maintains three parks, one near the Municipal Office, the second near the Municipal Library and the third located near the filter beds. It is running a child welfare centre and also a rest house.

There were ten sanitary inspectors working in the municipality, in October 1965. They are attending to the vaccination work also. The municipal authorities maintain the register of births and deaths and submit weekly returns to the Registrar-General of Births and Deaths, Bangalore.

As Gulbarga city has been the district headquarters and also the headquarters of the Divisional Commissioner, the population of the city has considerably increased and with the growth of the population, slums have cropped up in the city area. To solve the problem of slums to some extent at least, the municipality decided

to take advantage of the Government of India scheme for the clearing of slums in cities. Gazipura slum area in the city was selected to be tackled first as this locality is very thickly populated and is lacking in proper sanitary facilities. During the year 1959, a sum of Rs. 1,15,010 was sanctioned in this connection. But due to the increase in the cost of materials, the estimated cost had to be revised to Rs. 1,64,300.

In the year 1964-65, there were one thousand and fifteen electric street lights in the city and out of them, forty were mercury vapour lights. Tube lights have been fitted on the main roads

Improvement of Roads

The total mileage of roads under the jurisdiction of the municipality is thirty-five out of which, four miles are of cement concrete, six and a half miles are asphalted and the rest are metalled. Most of the metalled roads need re-metalling or they have to be asphalted in view of the fast increasing heavy traffic. During the year 1963-64, the municipal council sanctioned estimates for the construction of cement concrete roads in several localities of the city for a length of about two miles. Recently, the municipal council resolved to take up road repair works and laying of new roads at an estimated cost of Rs. 3,75,341, from out of the budget allotment for the year 1964-65. The council has also sanctioned an estimate amounting to Rs. 2,24,060 for other works relating to the municipality, the amount to be met from out of the balances at the disposal of the municipality.

The various Government grants received are being utilised for the development works in the city. The municipality has also sanctioned amounts from out of its funds with a view to providing fifty per cent matching contribution in this regard

The sources of income of the municipality are the property tax, the profession tax, tolls, octroi fees, vehicle and animal taxes, market tolls, fee on sale of animals, slaughter house fees, licence fees, building permit fees, entertainment taxes, rents from municipal buildings and lands, and income from cattle pounds.

The income and expenditure figures relating to the municipality for the years 1961-62 to 1964-65 are furnished below :—

Year	*Income*	*Expenditure*
	Rs.	Rs.
1961—62	10,12,451	11,29,489
1962—63	12,13,937	11,79,695
1963—64	13,88,060	12,44,816
1964—65	16,26,390	13,23,841

Development Plans

With an idea to improving the city of Gulbarga, according to modern notions of civic welfare, the Municipal Council has on hand, a comprehensive three-year development plan which when completed would give a new look to the historic city. This scheme is estimated to cost Rs. 1.10 crores. The broad features of the development plan envisage the drying up of the Jagat Tank at a total cost of Rs. 7 lakhs as the tank bed has proved a nuisance to the inhabitants. It is proposed to construct a central bus stand, an exhibition ground, and a stadium on the dried up tank bed. The city is full of congested lanes, which are quite unfit for present day traffic. The Municipality is seriously thinking of improving these lanes at an expenditure of Rs. 4.5 lakhs. In recent years, the town has grown by leaps and bounds and the sprawling nature of its expansion calls for urgent improvement methods. It has been decided to extend the municipal limits as suggested by the Town Planning expert. To alleviate the acute housing shortage, the Municipality has embarked upon a rapid scheme of housing. For this purpose, it has acquired 300 acres of land on the Seram road at a cost of Rs. 4 lakhs. According to the development plan, 200 single room and 200 double-room tenements are to be built at this site at a cost of Rs. 25 lakhs before 1969. The floating population of the city is fast increasing. The paucity of rest houses is acutely felt. Under a new scheme, it is proposed to build a modern travellers' lodge at a cost of Rs. 2 lakhs. It is also proposed to construct a central vegetable market, and zonal markets in various places in the town. The absence of a modern swimming pool has also been felt. The new plan envisages a new swimming pool, children's parks, and other amenities. Ultimately all roads in the town are to be asphalted with suitable traffic circles for the convenience of the public. Traffic islands near the tank bund, Brahmapur, Tir Andaz Talkies, Gunj Circle, Chargalli and Humnabad base will be broadened. A sum of Rs. 7,85,000 is provided for more public conveniences, cattle troughs, dhobi ghats and cattle fodder markets. There is also a proposal to divert the rain-water and sewerage water to a distance of 20 miles outside the city at a cost of Rs. 6 lakhs.

Gulbarga city, with a population now exceeding one lakh, has been developing pretty fast in the last few years, calling for its controlled and planned development in the coming years. For this purpose, a Town Planning Office, headed by an Assistant Director of Town Planning was established in Gulbarga city in January 1962. Its jurisdiction extends over the three districts of Gulbarga, Raichur and Bidar.

This office has undertaken the work of preparation of a Master Plan for Gulbarga city, as a Centrally sponsored scheme, and it was expected to be completed by the end of March 1966. A sum of Rs. 1,08,000 had been expended in this connection.

Town Municipality, Shahabad

The Shahabad Town Municipality was first constituted in 1952 with 20 members as councillors as per notification dated the 2nd December 1952 of the Government of Hyderabad. This town was in a jagir taluk then. Elections were held for the reconstitution of the municipal council in the year 1960. The council consisted of fifteen members including its president and vice-president in October 1965.

The Station area of Shahabad town has been also included in the municipal limits The area occupied by the Associated Cement Company and the revenue land situated in between the Associated Cement Company and the Town Municipality has been excluded from the municipal limits as per the terms of an agreement entered into by the municipality with the Associated Cement Company on 30th October 1956. The area of the town is two square miles approximately and the population of the town, according to the census of 1961, was 20,416. The entire town has been divided into thirty divisions. Two seats on the Council have been reserved for members belonging to the Scheduled Castes.

An agreement was entered into in 1956 by the municipality with the Associated Cement Company to supply 1,50,000 gallons of protected water per day to Shahabad town and the area surrounding the railway station and also electricity to the street lights and other private connections in the town. The municipal council was paying Rs. 10,000 towards water supply charges and Rs. 1,000 towards the electricity charges annually to the company.

The Kagna river, situated about a mile from Shahabad town, is the source of water supply to the town. The river water is purified by the authorities of the Associated Cement Company and supplied to the municipality. The municipal authorities arrange for the distribution of the protected water to the people of the town through taps. There were twenty-one public taps and two hundred and sixty-seven private connections in the town in October 1965. There is a reservoir near the municipal offices with a capacity of 75,000 gallons. It is filled twice daily so as to enable the municipality to supply water to the people in the town. Water is being supplied for five hours daily, three hours in the morning and two hours in the evening.

The municipality is contemplating to extend the limits of the town by laying new extensions. A park is being maintained just opposite to the municipal offices. A free-reading room for the benefit of the reading public is also being run.

Electricity was first supplied to the town on 1st July 1959. There were 256 electric street lights in the town in October 1965. The Associated Cement Company was supplying electricity to the

town through their thermal power station attached to the factory. The number of private connections was 290. There were also 29 petromax lights. The Mysore State Electricity Board began supplying electricity to the town with effect from 4th September 1964.

The Daroga (assistant sanitary inspector) maintains the births and deaths register. He submits monthly reports to the municipal authorities who send them on to the Director of Statistics. The vaccination work in the town is done by the four vaccinators who belong to the Health Services Department. The municipality has appointed four scavengers. The town enjoys a dry and healthy climate and is free from epidemic diseases.

There is no underground drainage in the town ; only open surface drains have been provided.

The total length of roads maintained by the municipality is six and a half miles, of which one and a half miles are concreted and the rest are metalled.

The municipality is not running any educational institutions, nor does it maintain any medical institutions in the town.

The income and expenditure figures of the municipality for the years 1961-62 to 1963-64 are given below :—

Year	*Income*	*Expenditure*
1961-62	Rs. 74,333	Rs. 58,292
1962-63	Rs. 69,374	Rs. 67,749
1963-64	Rs. 89,759	Rs. 1,00712

Aland Town Municipality

Prior to the integration of jagirs in the old Hyderabad State, the Town Committee of Aland was under the administrative control of an officer known as Duam Talukdar. The Municipal Committee was a nominated body. There were no elected public representatives. In the year 1950, the jagirs were merged with the Khalsa areas of the State thus putting an end to the jagirdari system. As a result of this, the municipal committee which was a Town Committee came under the administrative control of the Tahsildar. The Town Committee consisted of only nominated members. Elections to this committee were held for the first time in the year 1953 under the provisions of the Hyderabad Municipal and Town Committees Act, 1951, and the Town Committee was elevated to the status of a city municipality. The first elected municipal council consisted of twenty-four members, of whom seventeen were elected members and seven were nominated. Out of the seven nominated members, three were official members and the other four were non-official members. Out of the seventeen

elected members two members belonged to the Scheduled Castes. Elections were conducted to the municipality in accordance with the provisions of the Hyderabad District Municipalities Act, 1956. Under the Mysore Municipalities Act, 1964, the Municipal council was designated again as a town municipality. In October 1965, the municipal council consisted of seventeen members. One seat was reserved on the council for a member belonging to the Scheduled Castes from out of the general seats. The town has been divided into seven wards.

The municipality has made arrangements for the supply of protected water to the people of the area. There were seventeen public taps and three hundred and seventy-one private connections in the town in October 1965.

There is no underground drainage in the town. Surface drains have been constructed to the extent of three miles.

The municipality is not maintaining any educational or medical institutions in the town. There is only one recreation park within the municipal limits. No new colonies have been formed except the Thyagaraja Colony where the offices and quarters for the officials of the Block Development scheme are located.

The municipality has provided electric street lights in most of the streets and lanes. There were two hundred and sixty-one street lights in the town in October, 1965. The municipality hopes to provide electric lights in the other localities of the town also within a short period.

The sanitary inspector maintains the register of births and deaths in the town. He also attends to the vaccination work in the area. The municipality had employed eight men sweepers, twelve women sweepers, and four scavengers in October 1965. The town has been free from communicable diseases.

The number of buildings in the town was 3,260, in October 1965.

The total road mileage within the municipal jurisdiction was three miles and the entire length was metalled.

The income and expenditure figures relating to the municipality for the years 1961-62 to 1964-65 are given below:—

Year	*Income*	*Expenditure*
1961-62	Rs. 60,728	Rs. 55,893
1962-63	Rs. 80,623	Rs. 1,35,596
1963-64	Rs. 1,19,355	Rs. 1,20,786
1964-65	Rs. 1,18,184	Rs. 1,17,509

The financial condition of the municipality has not been very sound. Efforts are afoot to improve its financial position by enhancing the rates and taxes and finding other sources of revenue.

Shahapur Town Municipality

The first municipal council was established in Shahapur town in the year 1354 Fasli by Government Order dated 6th Amardad 1354 Fasli (11th June 1945). The municipal council was then attached to the Tahsil Office. There were nine members on the council. All were being nominated by the Government. The Tahsildar was the chairman of the municipal council.

In the year 1954, the municipality was separated from the Tahsildar's Office, and elections were held to the municipal council. The council consisted of 18 members, of whom six were nominated members. The president was elected from among the elected members. One seat on the council was reserved for a member belonging to the Scheduled Castes. Elections were conducted to the municipal council again in the year 1960. This was the first election after the reorganisation of States. The council consists of fifteen members. One seat is reserved for a member belonging to the Scheduled Castes.

The municipality has not yet undertaken any town planning schemes. Wells constitute the source of water supply to the people. The municipality has prepared a scheme for the supply of protected water and it is under the consideration of Government. There is no underground drainage in the town; only open surface drains have been provided. The municipality had provided twenty-five petromax lights and forty-two lanterns for purposes of lighting the town. The Mysore State Electricity Board has been supplying electricity to the place from December 1964.

The municipality is not maintaining any educational institutions, nor is it running any medical institutions in the town. But, it is maintaining a fine park called the Rashtrapati Park for the recreation of the public. There is also a play-ground for children. A radio has been installed in the park for the entertainment of the public. The municipality is also maintaining one reading room for the use of the public.

The Daroga (assistant sanitary inspector) maintains the register of births and deaths in the town and looks after the sanitary arrangements. The municipality has employed six men labourers, ten women labourers, three scavengers, and two malis for the Rashtrapati Park. The town has been free from epidemic diseases.

The municipality has been levying octroi duty in the area with effect from 15th of November 1965.

The income and expenditure figures relating to the municipality for the years 1961-62 to 1964-65 are given below :—

Year	*Income*	*Expenditure*
1961-62	Rs. 49,733	Rs. 40,668
1962-63	Rs. 44,755	Rs. 75,632
1963-64	Rs. 69,251	Rs. 64,289
1964-65	Rs. 69,962	Rs. 61,869

Shorapur Town Municipality

Shorapur is the headquarters of Shorapur taluk and is situated on a high undulating table land, surrounded by hills. The total municipal area is about three square miles and comprises Shorapur, Rangampet and Timapur. In the summer, during the day time the climate is dry and hot, but the nights are pleasant. During the remaining months, it is moderate. On the whole, the place is healthy.

A city municipal committee was first established on the 19th of November 1953 under the provisions of the Hyderabad Municipal and Town Committees Act, 1951. This committee consisted of twenty-four members including the president. Seventeen members were elected and seven were nominated. Out of these seven nominated members, three were *ex-officio* members and four were non-official members The three *ex-officio* members were the local Government Medical Officer, the Head Master of the Government High School and the Tahsildar of the taluk.

Elections were held to reconstitute the municipal council in the year 1960 Under the Mysore Municipalities Act, 1964, the municipal council was redesignated as a town municipality. The municipal council consists of 17 members. One seat on the council has been reserved for a member belonging to the Scheduled Castes. The population of the town according to 1961 census, was 17,282 The total number of buildings in the town was 5,200 in October 1965.

The town gets its water supply from step wells. The upper portion of Shorapur town lacks good 'sweet' water wells. In summer, most of these wells dry up and the people are put to great hardship to get their water supply. However, the people of Rangampet and Timapur localities have a better facility and they get their supply of drinking water from the 'sweet' water wells around and mostly from the draw wells. There were twenty-six public and four private 'sweet' water wells and thirty-nine brackish water wells in Shorapur town in October 1965. All the drinking

water wells are being disinfected with bleaching powder and lime regularly.

With a view to providing protected water supply to the people, the municipality has worked out a scheme at an estimated cost of Rs. 2,60,000. The scheme is being executed by the Public Works Department and it is expected to be completed early.

There were three hundred and two electric street lights in the place in October 1965. In addition to these lights, the municipality has provided forty-eight petromax lights in the area.

There is one sanitary inspector for the whole area. It is proposed to have one more sanitary inspector to be in charge of the lower region of the area. The sanitary inspector maintains the register of births and deaths. He also attends to the vaccination work in the town and looks after the general sanitation in the area. The conservancy staff of the municipality consisted of seven men labourers, seventeen women labourers and five scavengers. The sanitary condition of the place is satisfactory. The town has been free from epidemic diseases.

There is no underground drainage system in the area. Open surface drains have been provided.

The total length of the roads within the municipal limits was four miles, of which two miles consisted of asphalted roads and the other two of metalled roads.

The municipality is maintaining a Dak Bungalow for the convenience of visitors.

Gandhi Bhavan

The work of construction of a building called "Gandhi Bhavan" was taken up in Shorapur by a committee consisting of some members of the public, called the Gandhi Bhavan Trust Committee, with the help of public contributions and Government grants. But the work could not be further proceeded with and the committee decided to hand over the building unconditionally to the municipality. With the approval of Government, the municipality took charge of the building with a view to completing it from out of the municipal funds and to house the municipal offices therein. An estimate for Rs. 10,000 for the construction of the building has been submitted for sanction of Government. After obtaining the Government sanction in the matter the municipality expects to complete the construction of the building shortly and shift the municipal offices to the same.

The municipality is not maintaining any educational institutions, nor is it running any medical institutions.

The income and expenditure figures relating to the municipality for the years 1961-62 to 1964-65 are given below :—

Year	Income	Expenditure
1961-62	Rs. 80,308	Rs. 89,307
1962-63	Rs. 88,333	Rs. 85,124
1963-64	Rs. 114,223	Rs. 98,328
1964-65	Rs. 178,925	Rs. 134,898

Yadgir Town Municipality

Before the integration of the jagirs with the old Hyderabad State, the municipality of Yadgir, then known as the Town Committee of Yadgir, was under the administrative control of an officer known as Duam Talukdar. Then, this municipal committee was only a nominated body. There were no elected representatives in the committee. In the year 1950, this committee came under the administrative control of the Tahsildar. Elections to the committee were held for the first time in the year 1952 under the provisions of the Hyderabad Municipal and Town Committees Act, 1951, and the Town Committee was elevated to the status of a city municipality. Elections to the municipal council were again held in 1960. Under the Mysore Municipalities Act, 1964, the municipal council was redesignated as a town municipality. The municipal council consists of 17 members. One seat on the council is reserved for a member belonging to the Scheduled Castes.

The municipality has made arrangements to supply protected water from the wells in the town, through pipes, to the people. There were eighty-eight public taps and nine hundred and nine private connections in the town in December 1965.

There is no underground drainage. Surface open drains have been provided in the various localities.

The municipality is not maintaining any medical or educational institutions. It is maintaining a recreation park in the town, and a dak bungalow for the convenience of the visitors.

The municipality has also provided electric street lights in the town.

The senior sanitary inspector maintains the register of births and deaths. He is also responsible for vaccination work and maintenance of proper sanitation in the town.

The income and expenditure figures of the municipality for the years 1961-62 to 1964-65 are given below :—

Year	*Income*	*Expenditure*
	Rs.	Rs.
1961-62	2,59,495	2,27,383
1962-63	2,45,230	2,53,826
1963-64	2,55,913	2,76,146
1964-65	2,87,730	2,37,286

Gurmatkal Town Municipality

The Gurmatkal municipality was first constituted in 1954. Then, there were eighteen members on the council. Elections were held in the year 1961 for the council.

The municipal council was again reconstituted in the month of August 1964 and the reconstituted body has been functioning since then. There were fifteen members on the municipal council including the president and vice-president.

The municipality was taking steps to acquire four survey numbers in the town with a view to extending the limits of the town.

There is no underground drainage in the town.

The municipality is not maintaining any medical institutions nor is it running any educational institutions in the area. It has constructed four public latrines in the town. It has also formed a road from the town to the bus stand nearby.

The Daroga maintains the register of births and deaths and exercises supervision over sanitary arrangements.

The municipality has worked out a scheme for getting supply of protected water and it is under the consideration of Government. The place is being supplied with electricity since December 1964 There were one hundred and ninety street electric lights in the area in January 1966.

Government have directed the municipality to take action to levy new taxes and also to enhance the existing rates permissible under the Municipal Act with a view to improving its financial position.

The income and expenditure figures relating to the municipality for the years 1961-62 to 1964-65 are given below :—

Year	*Income*	*Expenditure*
	Rs.	Rs.
1961-62	37,549	24,538
1962-63	28,609	26,366
1963-64	29,378	38,233
1964-65	37,610	28,162

Chincholi Town Municipality

Prior to the year 1953, the Town Committee of Chincholi was under the administrative control of the Tahsildar. In that year, elections were held to the committee and the Town Committee was elevated to the status of a Town Municipality. There were eleven members on the council when the same was reconstituted after the elections in 1960. Again, elections were held in 1964 to the council and this reconstituted council consists of 13 members. One seat has been reserved for a member belonging to the Scheduled Castes. The town was divided into twelve wards.

The Municipality has arranged for the supply of protected water to the people and daily about 12 gallons of water per head are being supplied to the people. The Government have sanctioned a loan of Rs. 75,000 to the municipality for effecting certain improvements to the water supply works.

There is no underground drainage in the town. The municipality has provided open surface drains.

The Daroga attends to vaccination work. He also maintains the births and deaths register. The municipality had employed six men labourers and five women labourers and two scavengers on the conservancy staff in October 1965.

The income and expenditure figures of the municipality for the years 1961-62 to 1964-65 are furnished below :—

Year	*Income*	*Expenditure*
	Rs.	Rs.
1961-62	23,924	21,580
1962-63	34,914	36,132
1963-64	34,207	26,957
1964-65	41,515	37,560

Seram town is on the Wadi-Hyderabad railway line. It is also connected to Gulbarga by road. The municipal area of Seram comprises Seram old town area, Seram station area, Bazar line and the Gunj area, the latter three areas constituting the new extensions. The area of the town municipality is about 1½ square miles. The population of the town, as per the 1961 Census, was 8,477. There were 2,104 houses in the town in October 1965. **Seram Town Municipality**

The Town Committee of Seram was under the administrative control of the Tahsildar prior to 1953. In that year, elections were held to the Committee and the Town Committee was elevated to the status of a Town Municipality as per the Hyderabad Municipal and Town Committees Act, 1951. There were seventeen members on the Committee; of these, twelve were elected members and five were nominated members. Again, out of these five nominated members, two were non-official members and the rest were officials.

The Town Municipal Committee was reconstituted on 10th March 1961 under the Hyderabad District Municipalities Act, 1956. There were then on the Committee fifteen members, all of them being elected members. Thirteen were general seats while two were reserved seats.

Elections to the Municipal Committee were held on 7th of November 1963 and the Committee was reconstituted with effect from 26th of December 1963. The strength of the Committee was fifteen as of old. Elections were again held to the Committee in 1964 and the same was reconstituted. This reconstituted body has been administering the civic affairs of the town since then.

The new Mysore Municipalities Act came into force with effect from 1st April 1965. In accordance with the provisions of this Act, the council has abolished all its four sub-committees and has constituted one standing committee consisting of seven members, to assist it in the various developmental works associated with civic affairs.

The municipality has provided protected water supply to the town. But the quantity of water supplied was found to be inadequate. Hence, in 1955 the Government of Hyderabad sanctioned a scheme at an estimated cost of rupees two lakhs to improve the water supply. This scheme was revised again in 1958 and the estimate was fixed at rupees three lakhs and later it was further revised to Rs. 2.22 lakhs. The Government have sanctioned the estimate. They have also granted a loan of Rs. 10,000 to the municipality in this regard. The works have been started and are progressing. There were ten public water taps in the town in April 1965. The number of private connections was two hundred

and ninety-six. The municipality proposes to increase this number to four hundred when the water works are completed. The place is being supplied with electricity since August 1964. There were one hundred and twenty-two street electric lights in the town in April 1965.

There is no underground drainage in the town. The Government sanctioned Rs. 4,000 in 1961-62, Rs. 10,000 in 1963-64 and Rs. 6,000 in 1964-65 for town development works. The municipality also contributed an equal amount for the purpose.

The conservancy staff of the municipality consisted of one daroga, two dalayats, seven men labourers, ten women labourers and three scavengers in April 1965. The daroga is maintaining the register of births and deaths in the town. He also attends to the vaccination work. The place has been free from epidemics.

The municipality is maintaining two parks in the town. There is also a municipal dak bungalow in the place.

Every effort was being made by the municipality to improve its financial position. It decided to levy octroi duty and expected to derive an annual income of nearly Rs. 40,208 thereby. The municipality also intended to revise the rates of licence fees, land rent and permit fees.

The income and expenditure figures relating to the municipality for the years 1961-62 to 1964-65 are given below :—

Year	*Income*	*Expenditure*
	Rs.	Rs.
1961-62	62,290	58,288
1962-63	54,437	61,805
1963-64	70,868	60,580
1964-65	1,00,152	60,464

Chittapur Town Municipality

The Chittapur Municipality, which was a Town Committee was elevated to the status of a Town Municipality as per the provisions of the Hyderabad Municipal and Town Committees Act, 1951. Elections were held to the municipal council in 1960 and the council was reconstituted. The Mysore Municipalities Act, 1964, came into force with effect from 1st April 1965. There are fifteen members on the council including the president and vice-president. Two seats on the council are reserved for members belonging to the Scheduled Castes.

The town was supplied with electricity in 1958. The State Government sanctioned a loan of Rs. 7,61,587 to the municipality for implementing a water supply scheme in the town.

The income and expenditure figures of the municipality for the years 1961-62 to 1964-65 are furnished below :—

Year	*Income*	*Expenditure*
	Rs.	Rs.
1961-62	29,342	28,244
1962-63	30,440	37,350
1963-64	50,897	39,779
1964-65	47,873	55,031

The municipality has planned to levy octroi duty in the town. It is expected that the financial position of the municipality would improve considerably after octroi is levied. During 1964-65, the Government sanctioned Rs. 6,000 to the municipality for carrying out town improvement works.

After the enactment of the Mysore Village Panchayats and Local Boards Act of 1959, action was taken to have the taluk development boards and village panchayats constituted as laid down in the Act. This Act constituted a progressive step in the direction of democratic decentralisation of the administrative set-up. The new enactment aimed at the panchayats and taluk boards becoming primary functionaries for all forms of development in rural areas. The Act provided that 25 per cent of the total land revenue and the entire local cess should be assigned to the taluk boards and 35 per cent of the land revenue should be assigned to the panchayats with a view to enabling them to carry on the duties entrusted to them. In addition to this, the taluk board has powers to levy a duty on transfer of immovable properties in the shape of an additional stamp duty and a tax on animals brought for sale, to grant licences for certain trades and the like on payment of prescribed fees. There were ten taluk boards and five hundred and sixteen village panchayats in the district as on 1st October 1965. In order to scrutinise and approve the budgets of the taluk boards and co-ordinate the work of all these boards in the district, a District Development Council at the district level was constituted consisting of the Deputy Commissioner, Members of Parliament and State Legislature, presidents of all taluk boards in the district, certain Government officers, a member belonging to the Scheduled Castes and a lady member. The Deputy Commissioner is the Chairman of this Council. **Panchayat Raj**

Members of the Taluk Development Boards are elected directly on adult franchise.

The Taluk Boards, under the provisions made, have taken up specific works such as the construction of school buildings, drinking water wells, conversion of step-wells into draw-wells, construction of veterinary hospitals, establishment of Ayurvedic and Local Fund dispensaries and setting up of State-pattern health units, running of high schools and construction of approach roads, culverts and road drains.

Panchayat Raj Training Centre, Gulbarga.—With a view to imparting training to the chairmen and vice-chairmen of the village panchayats, members of the taluk boards and others in the three districts of Gulbarga, Bidar and Bijapur, in matters relating to panchayat administration, a Panchayat Raj Training Centre was established in Gulbarga with effect from 8th August 1962. This Centre, situated about half a mile from the railway station in the outskirts of Gulbarga city, is one of eight such centres established in the State. The Bharat Sevak Samaj of the Karnataka region has taken over the responsibility of running the institution with Government aid.

CHAPTER XV

EDUCATION AND CULTURE

Historical Background

THOUGH learning was always highly esteemed, education never seemed to have been regarded as a duty of the State under the former Indian rulers. It was left mostly in the hands of religious leaders and priests. Endowments were often given for promoting learning as a religious duty.

There is evidence to believe that the Brahmanic system of education prevalent in other parts of India was in vogue in Gulbarga district as well, since the earliest times. This system was closely connected with religion and ritualism. The teaching appears to have been mostly oral, the student committing to memory what was taught to him by the teacher. The curriculum was a comprehensive one, including not only the Vedas and other religious lore, but also grammar, philosophy, literature, mathematics, logic, astronomy, etc., besides the arts of dancing, singing and other fine arts. As a rule, the student remained in the house of the teacher and served him all through, till he finished his course.

The education of the Kshatriyas was more vocational than academic, and included the use of arms and military training, in addition. The Vaishya education was also largely professional, the boy learning his trade from the father. The same was the case with the training in other crafts.

The Muhammadan system of education was, as in the case of the Brahmanic system, also closely connected with religion. As in other Muhammadan countries, the mosque, especially in towns, was the centre of instruction and of literary activity. Muhammadan educational institutions were known as "maktabs" and "madrasahs". The maktab was a primary school attached to a mosque where instruction was given to boys in portions of the Koran. Instruction in reading, writing and simple arithmetic was also included in the curriculum. The madrasah was a school or college of higher learning. The Bahmani rulers provided for the education of orphans and also for the maintenance of teachers. Muhammad Shah (1463-1482) built at Bidar a fine library

containing about 3,000 volumes. It was a great centre of attraction for the people of the Gulbarga area as well.

Modern Education

It was in the year 1854 that the Government of Hyderabad took the first step towards public instruction, when that far-sighted statesman, Sir Salar Jung Bahadur, founded the Darul-Uloom in the city of Hyderabad and placed it under an education board. It became a centre of oriental learning and culture. A few years later, five branch schools were opened in different parts of the city.

Systematic activity in the field of education, however, began in the State, with the famous Despatch of the Court of Directors of the East India Company, in the year 1854. The structure of education was mainly based on the plan formulated in that Despatch.

The next step in popularising education was taken when the Government issued a notification in the year 1859 ordering the opening of two schools in each of the taluk and district head-quarters, one in Persian and the other in the local language. The management of these schools was entrusted to a committee consisting of village headmen and patwaris, presided over by the Tahsildar at each taluk headquarters, while a higher officer was appointed as the head of the district committee and also as the inspecting officer for the district.

In the year 1869, the Education Department was established on a firm footing with the appointment of a Secretary to the Miscellaneous Minister in the Education Department and the Director of Public Instruction. Subsequently, in the year 1874, Deputy Inspectors for all districts were appointed, to whom were transferred most of the duties connected with educational matters. English education was first introduced in the districts in the year 1873 and an Anglo-vernacular school was opened in Gulbarga in the year 1875.

The year 1882 marked the opening of a new chapter in the history of education in Hyderabad State. Public instruction became a major department. High schools were opened at the head-quarters of each district. Upper and lower middle schools were also established at a number of places in each of the districts and the number of primary schools also increased considerably. The middle school examination was instituted in the year 1890. A text book committee and an education board were also constituted in the same year. The Normal School for the training of teachers was reorganised. By 1904, technical and professional schools such as those for industries, arts and crafts, engineering, medicine and law were all brought under the partial control of the Education Department. A Higher Secondary Leaving Certificate Board was constituted in the year 1910.

The inauguration of the Osmania University in the year 1918 led to the development of higher education in the State. A special feature of the University was that Urdu was made the medium of instruction. Intermediate classes were added to many of the high schools,including the Gulbarga High School, in the year 1931. The Department of Technical and Vocational Education was created to open and supervise technical and vocational schools in the State.

Among the non-official agencies which strove for the improvement of education in the district in the early days, mention may be made of the Nutan Vidyalaya Education Society which was responsible for the establishment of some of the oldest institutions in the district. One of the earliest institutions, the Nutan Vidyalaya, was started in the year 1907 with a single teacher and seven students. It functioned as a middle school for about 25 years, when in the year 1933 it was upgraded into a high school. The society is now running a primary school, a high school for boys with a pupil strength of about 1,200 and a girls' multi-purpose high school, with a strength of about 400 students. It is also running private coaching classes for the benefit of the adults.

Growth of Literacy through the decades

Gulbarga district comprised twelve taluks before its integration with the new Mysore State on the 1st November 1956, when Kodangal and Tandur taluks were, however, transferred to Andhra Pradesh.

Any study of the trends of literacy in the district prior to 1st November 1956 would therefore include these two taluks, not now included in the State, unless specifically stated otherwise. The district was formerly under the administrative control of the Government of Hyderabad.

The actual enumeration of literates in the district in the old days was confined to those who were able to read and write any simple letter in any of the languages spoken in the district. Gulbarga district, in common with the other Karnatak areas of the former Hyderabad State, was educationally backward compared to the other areas of the new Mysore State. The percentage of literacy was very low till the year 1931. It was only during the decades 1931-41 and 1951-61 that some progress was achieved in the district.

The census figures of 1921 show the percentage of literate males and females in the district as 3.8 and 0.2 respectively; in 1931 these figures were 5.4 and 1.0 respectively; and in the year 1941 they stood at 12.4 and 3.7 respectively. These figures are significant and indicate that although some progress had been achieved regarding the education of men, the progress of women's education in the district was far from satisfactory.

The following table indicates the progress of literacy in the district from 1921 to 1941, in respect of both men and women.

Year	Men			Women		
	Population	No. of literates	Percentage of literates	Population	No. of literates	Percentage of literates
1921	.. 5,55,105	17,338	3.8	5,40,648	1,029	0.2
1931	.. 6,21,687	33,873	5.4	6,03,321	5,978	1.0
1941	.. 6,69,152	83,179	12.4	6,42,903	23,490	3.7

The population of the district (excluding Kodangal and Tandur taluks) in the year 1951 was 12,13,608 and the number of literates was 92,230. According to the 1961 census, the population of the district was 13,90,457 and the number of literates 2,06,091, the percentage of literacy being 14.7 as against 7.6 in 1951. The decade 1951-61 has thus shown a good progress with regard to education in the district.

The two tables given at the end of the chapter indicate the comparative position with regard to the total number of literates in 1951 and in 1961, and the percentage of literacy in the district, according to taluks as well as towns. It is significant to note that in the year 1951, there were 92,230 literates in the district of whom 80,217 were men and 12,013 were women, the total percentage of literates being only 7.6. The corresponding figures for the year 1961, according to the 1961 census, were 2,06,091 of whom 1,69,902 were men and 36,189 women, the percentage of literates being 14.7. The percentage of literates in the urban areas of the district, which was 21.5 in 1951 rose to 32.5 in 1961, thus registering an increase of eleven per cent over the figures of 1951.

The improved literacy standard in the district may be attributed to the policy of the Government in making adequate provision for the advancement of education. People also are becoming aware of the disadvantages of illiteracy, particularly after the transfer of political power to their elected representatives. It is however seen, generally, that men have made more progress in the improvement of their literacy standards than women. The percentage of literacy in respect of men which was 13.2 for the district in the year 1951 rose up to 24.1 in the year 1961, while the corresponding figures in respect of women were 2.0 and 5.2 respectively.

Educational levels

The total number of literates in the district according to the census of 1961 was 2,06,091 (1,69,902 men and 36,189 women). The literates who have not passed any examination and those who have passed an examination below that of primary or junior

basic examination (including those who have failed in primary or junior basic examination) have been included in the category of "Literates without educational level", while all the other literates who have passed primary or junior basic or any higher examination have been included in the respective categories. The following statement indicates the number of literates without educational level, and persons who have passed institutional examinations—academic, vocational or technical—in the *urban areas* of the district, according to the census of 1961.

Educational Levels	*Persons*	*Males*	*Females*
Literate (without educational level) ..	42,983	30,282	12,701
Primary or Junior Basic ..	24,057	18,331	5,726
Matriculation or Higher Secondary ..	5,232	4,710	522
Technical diploma not equal to degree ..	170	166	4
Non-technical diploma not equal to degree	91	89	2
University degree or post-graduate degree other than technical degree.	767	711	56
Technical degree or diploma equal to degree or post-graduate degree—			
Engineering ..	55	55	..
Medicine ..	29	23	6
Agriculture ..	15	15	..
Veterinary and Dairying ..	6	6	..
Technology ..	1	1	..
Teaching ..	155	131	24
Total ..	73,561	54,520	19,041

The following statement indicates the number of literates without educational level, and persons who have passed primary or junior basic, matriculation and other higher examinations in the *rural areas* of the district, according to the census of 1961.

Educational Levels	*Persons*	*Males*	*Females*
Literate (without educational level)	110,799	96,406	14,393
Primary or Junior Basic ..	19,057	16,408	2,649
Matriculation and above ..	2,674	2,568	106
Total ..	1,32,530	1,15,382	17,148

Educational Administration

The administrative pattern of education in the former Hyderabad Karnatak areas was slightly different from what was obtaining in the other integrated areas. At the district level, the Inspector

of Schools was in charge of primary schools. He was a gazetted officer, holding a class II post. The administration of all primary schools was his responsibility. The inspection of these schools was, however, done by the Deputy Inspectors of Schools in charge of each educational range, who were non-gazetted officers. All administrative matters like transfers and promotions vested with the Inspectors of Schools. The Deputy Inspectors were subordinate to the Inspector of Schools.

The status of the Inspector of Schools was equal to that of a District Educational Officer of the former Mysore area. The designation of the Inspector of Schools has since been changed to "District Educational Officer" to achieve uniformity in this regard.

The administration, supervision and inspection of all high schools and training institutions were vested with the Deputy Director of Public Instruction, as in the other integrated areas.

Primary Education

Set-up under Hyderabad Government

Primary education was imparted mainly in primary schools and in the primary sections of some of the composite primary-*cum*-middle schools. Usually, the primary sections consisted of five classes, the infant class corresponding to the nursery class and primary I to IV.

Primary education was the sole responsibility of the Government, as in ex-Mysore. The duration of primary education was seven years and it was provided in two kinds of schools, namely, primary schools with classes I to IV and primary-*cum*-middle schools which had classes V to VII in addition. Besides these schools, there were middle schools corresponding to the old middle schools in ex-Mysore, with only three classes V, VI and VII.

The administration and control of primary education in Hyderabad Karnatak areas closely resembled the system existing in old Mysore. There were no institutions under the control of the local bodies.

There was a public examination at the end of the seventh year of primary education, the passing of which enabled the students to enter the high school. The entire school course was of ten years' duration, one year less than in the other areas, where it was eleven years. But wherever infant classes were also attached, the duration was eleven years as in the other areas. This infant class was, however, not compulsory.

At the time of States' reorganisation, primary education was imparted in Gulbarga district mainly in primary schools consisting

of classes I to IV and in primary-*cum*-middle schools (senior primary schools) which had classes V to VII also in addition. All these schools were under the control of the Government.

The number of primary schools and primary-*cum*-middle schools which came over to the control of the Mysore Education Department when Gulbarga district became a part of the new Mysore State, was as indicated below :—

Types of Institutions	*No. of Schools*	*No. of pupils*		*No. of teachers*	
		Boys	*Girls*	*Men*	*Women*
Primary Schools (Boys) ..	906	46,096	6,444	1,759	..
Primary Schools (Girls) ..	51	472	4,298	9	176
Primary-*cum*-Middle Schools	2	400	130	36	1
Total ..	959	46,968	10,872	1,804	177

Primary Schools

There were 1,175 junior primary schools (having Standards I to IV) and 142 senior primary schools (having Standards I to VII), for boys in the district, during the year 1965-66. The following tables indicate the numbers of these schools, teachers and pupils, in each of the taluks of the district :—

JUNIOR PRIMARY SCHOOLS

Sl. No.	*Name of the Taluk*	*No. of Schools*	*No. of Teachers*			*No. of Pupils*		
			Men	*Women*	*Total*	*Boys*	*Girls*	*Total*
1.	Gulbarga	12	158	13	171	4,262	2,455	6,717
2.	Chittapur	112	135	11	146	5,418	2,980	8,398
3.	Yadgir ..	136	183	1	184	4,708	2,194	6,902
4.	Shahapur	131	168	.	168	4,379	2,320	6,699
5.	Shorapur	165	216	3	219	6,372	3,487	9,859
6.	Jevargi ..	123	164	..	164	4,742	2,798	7,540
7.	Afzalpur ..	72	84	5	89	2,336	1,504	3,840
8.	Aland ..	114	132	26	158	4,685	2,360	7,045
9.	Chincholi	111	134	..	134	3,022	1,366	4,388
10.	Seram ..	91	117	1	118	2,701	1,503	4,204
	Total ..	1,175	1,491	60	1,551	42,625	22,967	65,592

SENIOR PRIMARY SCHOOLS

Sl. No.	Name of the Taluk	No. of Schools	No. of Teachers: Men	Women	Total	No. of Pupils: Boys	Girls	Total
1.	Gulbarga ..	19	99	6	105	2,858	796	3,654
2.	Chittapur ..	21	120	3	123	4,131	1,730	5,861
3.	Yadgir ..	17	129	2	131	3,559	782	4,341
4.	Shahapur ..	5	29	.	29	666	301	967
5.	Shorapur .	14	83	1	84	2,192	932	3,124
6.	Jevargi	5	40	.	40	1,140	352	1,492
7	Afzalpur	18	112	3	115	2,964	1,191	4,155
8.	Aland .	22	126	2	128	3,738	1,067	4,805
9.	Chincholi .	8	44	..	44	1,141	401	1,542
10.	Seram ..	13	62	..	62	1,418	547	1,965
	Total .	142	844	17	861	23,807	8,099	31,906

In addition to the above-mentioned institutions, there were 39 junior and senior primary schools for girls during the year 1965-66. The following table gives details of these schools in each taluk of the district:—

Sl. No.	Name of the Taluk	No. of Schools	No. of Teachers: Men	Women	Total	No. of Pupils: Boys	Girls	Total
1.	Gulbarga ..	5	.	29	29	107	873	980
2.	Chittapur	3	..	25	25	628	780	1,408
3.	Yadgir .	7	..	17	17	35	444	479
4.	Shahapur	3	.	22	22	..	940	940
5.	Shorapur ..	2	.	2	2	..	86	86
6.	Jevargi .	1		4	4	..	157	157
7	Afzalpur ..	3		5	5	.	217	217
8.	Aland	6		21	21	354	355	709
9.	Chincholi .	6	..	21	21	..	356	356
10.	Seram	3	..	16	16	121	485	606
	Total	39	.	162	162	1,245	4,693	5,938

Compulsory Primary Education

Compulsory primary education was introduced in selected areas in the district from the year 1953, in accordance with the Hyderabad Compulsory Education Act, 1952. Under the provisions of this Act, a contiguous area in the district was brought

under the scheme, by stages. There was no Attendance Officer, but the District Educational Officer himself was in charge of the enforcement of the Act. Much headway was not made in the district on account of the limited scope of the scheme as it existed prior to the States' reorganisation.

Mysore Compulsory Primary Education Act, 1961

One of the most important programmes included in the Third Five-Year Plan was the expansion and improvement of primary education, making it universal, free and compulsory. The Union Government decided that a beginning should be made from the year 1961-62 and that at least 90 per cent of the children of the age-group 6-11 should be brought into the schools by the end of 1965-66. Mysore State took up this task in right earnest, and necessary steps were taken to implement the compulsory education scheme in stages, starting with children of the age group 6-7 during 1961-62 and extending it to the next age groups in succeeding years, so that by the end of the Third Five-Year Plan, the whole of the age-group 6-11 would have been covered. For this purpose, the Mysore Compulsory Primary Education Act, 1961, was passed by the State Legislature in April, 1961, and its provisions were brought into force with effect from the 1st August 1961, throughout the State. The main provisions of the Act are the following :—

(i) establishment of primary schools within a walking distance of one mile from the home of every child in the State ;

(ii) making it the responsibility of every parent to cause his children to attend an approved school ;

(iii) the creation of attendance authorities to enforce enrolment ;

(iv) prevention of employment of children which would keep them away from attendance at schools, and

(v) constitution of Primary School Panchayat Courts to try offences contravening the provisions of the Act.

Rules have also been framed for the effective implementation of the Act.

On the model of the National Seminar on compulsory primary education held in Delhi with representatives from all the States attending it, a State-Level Seminar was also held in the State in April 1961. The most important recommendations of the Seminar which have been accepted by Government are the following :—

(i) opening of schools in all villages having a minimum population of 300 or where the minimum number of students are available ;

(ii) provision of additional teachers to existing schools;

(iii) provision for incentive schemes like mid-day meals, supply of books, attendance scholarships, etc.

(iv) constitution of a School Betterment Committee for each school and

(v) making the Taluk Boards and the Municipalities share the responsibilities connected with the implementation of compulsory education in their respective areas.

An enumeration of children of school-going age was conducted early in February 1961 in the entire State, to assess the number of children who should be enrolled. The number of children enumerated in Gulbarga district was 28,150 boys and 21,018 girls. The number of children who were admitted into schools as per the scheme, was 24,375 boys and 16,954 girls, as on the 28th February 1962, the total percentage of enrolment being 87. Eighty-six primary schools were newly sanctioned and 272 additional teachers were appointed to cope with the increased work in the district during the year 1961-62.

The following statement indicates the number of children enumerated and enrolled, and the percentage of enrolment, during the year 1964-65 :—

	Boys	*Girls*	*Total*
Enumerated	85,855	60,231	1,46,086
Enrolled ..	72,081	47,067	1,19,148
Percentage of enrolment ..	84	78	83

Medium of Instruction

The medium of instruction in the primary schools was the mother-tongue of the child, namely Kannada, Urdu or Marathi: in a few of the schools, the pupils were taught in Hindi and Telugu also, depending upon the number of such pupils in the schools concerned.

Changes in syllabi of studies

Soon after the reorganisation of the States, Government appointed a committee called "The Educational Integration Advisory Committee" to advise them regarding the steps to be taken to evolve a common pattern of education for the new Mysore State. This Committee decided on a seven-year primary-(basic) education and a four-year higher secondary education to be uniformly followed in the new State.

A Curriculum Committee was then appointed to formulate the outlines of the primary school course and various Syllabus Sub-committees were also constituted to draw up detailed syllabi for

the subjects and activities in the primary schools. The draft syllabi prepared by the above sub-committees were published with a view to eliciting opinions, criticisms and suggestions from educationists, and others interested in education. An *ad-hoc* committee was then appointed to go through the opinions, views and suggestions and to finalise the draft syllabi. The syllabi thus finalised by the *ad-hoc* committee were accepted by the Educational Integration Advisory Committee and approved by Government.

The revised syllabus of Standards I and II was introduced in all the primary schools of the State from the academic year 1959-60, that of Standards III and IV from the school year 1960-61 and that of Standards V and VI from the school year 1961-62. The revised syllabus of Standard VII was introduced throughout the State from the school year 1962-63.

Basic Education

The scheme of basic education sponsored by Mahatma Gandhi gained importance after independence. The principle underlying the scheme is that children should learn also some suitable craft so as to develop initiative, enterprise, and resourcefulness. Productive work is made the basis of learning. The children are taught basic crafts like spinning and weaving, gardening and agriculture. The teaching staff for these schools is drawn from basic training institutions. The aim of the Government was to convert, in course of time, every primary school into a basic school and to provide at least one basic school for every village with a population of 500 or more.

There were 128 basic primary schools for boys in the district as on the 31st December, 1965. Basic primary schools are primary schools with Standards I to IV or I to VII, in which crafts are also taught. The following statement indicates the strength of the pupils and teachers in the several schools situated in each of the taluks of the district :—

Sl. No.	Name of Taluk	No. of Schools	No. of Teachers			No. of Pupils		
			Men	Women	Total	Boys	Girls	Total
1.	Gulbarga ..	30	285	18	303	9,226	3,224	12,450
2.	Chittapur ..	8	68	2	70	2,212	750	2,962
3.	Yadgir .	5	65	1	66	1,317	283	1,600
4.	Shahapur ..	17	116	2	118	2,910	683	3,593
5.	Shorapur ..	11	81	1	82	1,974	683	2,657
6.	Jevargi ..	10	61	2	63	1,568	666	2,234
7.	Afzalpur ..	8	71	..	71	1,016	280	1,296
8.	Aland ..	11	84	8	92	2,815	729	3,544
9.	Chincholi ..	18	102	1	103	2,750	686	3,436
10.	Seram ..	10	94	..	94	1,789	511	2,300
	Total .	128	1,027	35	1,062	27,577	8,495	36,072

There were five basic institutions for girls in the district—3 in Gulbarga taluk and 2 in Shorapur taluk, during the year 1965-66. Sixty-five women teachers were in charge of these institutions, which had a total pupil strength of 2,328.

SECONDARY EDUCATION

Set-up under Hyderabad Government

A Board of Secondary Education consisting of representatives of the Education, Commerce and Industries, Co-operation, Agriculture and Engineering departments, as well as representatives of girls' education and of the public, was in existence to guide and supervise secondary education in the old Hyderabad State, prior to States' reorganisation. The Board made periodic recommendations to Government for the reorganisation of secondary education which were usually accepted. Various committees and sub-committees had been formed to evolve a suitable pattern of education. Text Book Committees were also constituted to prepare syllabi and also select suitable books of studies for the different classes of the secondary stage.

The high schools established in the State were of three kinds, namely, English high schools, Osmania high schools and Combined high schools. English high schools were those which prepared pupils for the Higher Secondary Leaving Certificate and the local Cambridge examinations and had English as the medium of instruction. The Osmania high schools followed the courses of study laid down by the Osmania University for the Osmania Matriculation examination, the medium of instruction being Urdu. In the Combined high schools, there were parallel classes for the Higher Secondary Leaving Certificate examination as well as for the Osmania Matriculation examination.

The two systems of secondary education, namely, the Higher Secondary Leaving Certificate system and the Osmania Matriculation system were later amalgamated and brought under the control of the Board of Secondary Education, with common courses of studies and a common examination at the end of the Higher Secondary stage. Special emphasis was laid on the teaching of science and manual training. The whole system of education was later reorganised in such a way as to facilitate bifurcation at the end of any stage of instruction, that is primary, lower secondary, higher secondary or university stage.

The Board of Secondary Education revised the curricula and syllabi for the secondary classes, remodelling them so as to bring them into greater conformity with the needs of the pupils. Under the revised scheme, secondary education extended over a period of six years from class V to class X.

Medium of Instruction

The use of the mother-tongue, namely Urdu, Kannada, Marathi or Telugu, as the medium of instruction was permitted in all the girls' higher secondary schools up to the end of the lower secondary stage. But in the boys' higher secondary schools, Urdu was the only medium of instruction in the lower as well as the higher secondary stages.

Present position—New pattern

Immediately after the formation of the new State of Mysore, Government took steps to integrate the different patterns of education obtaining in the various integrated areas. For this purpose, the Mysore Educational Integration Advisory Committee was constituted in December 1956, to evolve a common pattern of education for the entire State. One of the main recommendations of this Committee was that the primary and the secondary stages of education should be reorganised so as to provide for a seven-year course of primary education and a four-year course of higher secondary education in lieu of the different educational patterns obtaining in the various areas. The accepted all-India pattern was also an eleven-year course of pre-college education, and the high schools were expected to prepare pupils for admission to the reorganised three-year degree courses of the universities. Accepting the recommendations of the Committee, the Government passed orders directing that the pre-college education throughout the State should consist of an eleven-year course—seven years of primary education and four years of higher secondary education and that the four-year course of secondary education should be organised in a single institution to be known as the higher secondary school or multi-purpose high school. The new scheme of secondary education was ordered to be given effect to from the year 1960-61.

According to the revised syllabi, the subjects of study for the higher secondary education were :—

1. Languages—Kannada, Telugu, Urdu, Persian, Arabic, Samskrita, Hindi, Tamil, Marathi, Prakrit and Pali.
2. English.
3. Hindi.
4. Social Studies.
5. General Science.
6. General Mathematics.
7. Crafts.
8. Physical education.

There were five Government higher secondary schools for boys in the district, in Gulbarga, Yadgir, Aland, Kamalapur and Shahapur, as on the 1st December, 1965. There were no such institutions on that date exclusively for girls in the district.

High Schools

The high schools in the district consisted of three classes—VIII, IX and X standards. The medium of instruction in these institutions was Kannada, Urdu or Marathi.

Sixteen high schools came over under the control of the State Education Department frcm the old Hyderabad State, consequent on the reorganisation of the States.

The position as on the 31st March, 1965 was that there were fifty-three high schools in the district and of these, twenty-two were Government high schools for boys and only one was for girls. The Government schools for boys were located in Gulbarga, Shahapur, Yadgir, Aland, Kamalapur (Gulbarga taluk), Mahagaon (Gulbarga taluk), Gurmatkal, Nimbarga (Aland taluk), Chittapur, Shahabad, Chincholi, Sulepet (Chincholi taluk), Gogi (Shahapur taluk), Shorapur, Afzalpur, Mannur (Afzalpur taluk), Gobbur (Afzalpur taluk), Seram, Jevargi, Kembhavi (Shorapur taluk), Kodla (Seram taluk) and Yadrami (Jevargi taluk). The only Government high school for girls was located in Gulbarga city.

Aided High Schools

There were twenty-seven aided high schools for boys in the district as on the 31st March, 1965, located in the following places :

Gulbarga town (six institutions), Farhatabad, Sonth, Tadkal, Dongargaon, Andola (all in Gulbarga taluk), Yadgir, Madanhipperga, Narona, Kadaganchi, Korahalli, Busnoor (Aland taluk), Nalwar, Kalgi (Chittapur taluk), Nidgunda (Chincholi taluk), Mudhol, Malkhed (both in Seram taluk), Hirejevargi (Afzalpur taluk), Savalgi, Saidapur (Yadgir taluk), Wadi (Chittapur taluk) and Kalkunda (Seram taluk).

There were three aided high schools for girls and all these were located in Gulbarga city.

All these aided institutions received grants from the Government and were bound by rules applicable to grant-in-aid institutions.

The following table indicates the strength of students and of trained and untrained teachers in the boys' high schools in the district as on the 31st March 1965 :—

Sl. No.	*Types of Institutions*	*No. of Schools*	*No. of students*		*No. of Trained Teachers*		*No. of untrained Teachers*	
			Boys	*Girls*	*Men*	*Women*	*Men*	*Women*
1.	Government Schools.	22	10,984	914	296	..	189	2
2.	Aided Schools	27	4,949	668	53	9	171	8
	Total ..	49	15,933	1582	349	9	360	10

High Schools for Girls

Unlike in the ex-Mysore area, facilities for the education of girls in the Hyderabad Karnatak area were meagre at all stages of education.

There was only one girls' high school in Gulbarga district in the year 1941 with ten teachers and 124 pupils. Prior to the reorganisation of States, the number of such institutions was only two, with thirty teachers and 525 students. As on the 31st March, 1965, there were four separate high schools for girls in the district, all of them being located in Gulbarga city. The following table indicates the number of students and of trained and untrained teachers in these institutions as on that date :—

Sl. No.	*Types of Institutions*	*No. of schools*	*No. of girl students*	*No. of trained women teachers*	*No. of untrained women teachers*
1.	Government Schools	1	636	19	9
2.	Aided Schools	3	821	15	22
	Total ..	4	1,457	34	31

New High Schools

Twelve new high schools were started during the year 1965-66, of which one was an aided institution located at Mandwal (Jevargi taluk). The other eleven institutions were started by the Taluk Boards concerned, and were located at the following places :

1. Vajjal, 2. Kodekal (Shorapur taluk), 3. Salagera, 4. Yelsangi, 5. Khajuri (Aland taluk), 6. Wadgera, 7. Naikal, 8. Wandurg (Shahapur taluk), 9. Miryan, 10. Ratkal (Chincholi taluk) and 11. Ghangapur (Afzalpur taluk).

Teachers' Training Institutions

The training imparted in the teachers' training institutions of the department in the district is only of one grade, namely, Secondary Grade training corresponding to the Teachers' Certificate (Higher). It is of the basic type. The minimum qualification for admission is a pass in the S.S.L.C. or an equivalent examination. The duration of the secondary grade training is one year. The teachers under training are drawn from the department, but provision is made for admission of private candidates also.

There were two training institutions in Gulbarga district as on the 1st December, 1965, one for men and the other for women. Brief descriptions of these institutions are given below :—

Government Basic Training Institute, Kamalapur

The Government Basic Training Institute, Kamalapur, was started on the 1st September 1961. Its strength as on the 1st December, 1965 was ninety-four trainees, of whom twenty-three were from the Department and the rest were private candidates. Forty stipends of Rs. 15 per month were awarded to the private trainees on the basis of poverty-*cum*-merit. The staff consisted of a Superintendent and thirteen teachers.

In addition to the professional subjects, the crafts taught included spinning and weaving, carpentry and drawing.

Basic Training School for Women, Gulbarga

The Government Secondary Grade Teachers' Basic Training School for Women, Gulbarga, was started in the year 1962. There were 83 trainees as on the 1st December, 1965. The staff of the institute consisted of a Superintendent and five teachers. The subjects taught included principles of education, methods of teaching and school administration. The crafts taught in the institution were drawing and painting, needlework and paper and cardboard making. The students were given practical training in teaching. Training in community life was also one of the features of this institution.

Commercial Education

Commercial education at the Diploma and Certificate levels is being imparted in recognised commercial institutions under the control of the Department of Public Instruction. There were no Government institutions in the district. During the year 1963-64 the number of commercial institutions functioning in Gulbarga district was five, with a total strength of 785 pupils. All these institutions were under private management and were recognised by the Department of Public Instruction. The Assistant Director of Public Instruction (Commercial Education) inspects these institutions periodically.

The following statement indicates the names of the institutions, the number of teachers and the number of scholars studying in each of them :—

Sl No.	*Name of the Institution*	*No. of students*		*Total*	*Number of Teachers*
		Boys	*Girls*		
1	2	3	4	5	6
1	The National Institute of Commerce, Gulbarga.	300	15	315	2
2.	Pujari's Institute of Commerce, Gulbarga	75		75	2
3	International Institute of Commerce, Gulbarga.	105	4	109	3
4.	Gulbarga Institute of Commerce, Gulbarga	209	4	213	1
5.	Shah Institute of Commerce, Gulbarga	68	5	73	1
	Total ..	757	28	785	9

Higher Education

Colleges

There were four colleges for general education in the district as on the 1st December 1965, three of them being situated in Gulbarga city itself and the other one at Yadgir. They are the Government Arts and Science College, Gulbarga, the Sharanabasaveshwara College of Arts and Science, Gulbarga, the Srimathi

Veeramma Gangasiri College for Women, Gulbarga, and the Shankar College, Yadgir. Brief accounts of these colleges are given below :

Government Arts and Science College, Gulbarga

The Government Arts and Science College, Gulbarga, was started in the year 1932 by the ex-Hyderabad Government as an Intermediate Arts and Science College, with provision for teaching Mathematics, Physics, Chemistry and Biology as optional subjects. The total strength of the college then was only sixty-six, and it was attached to the local Government High School, the Head Master of which acted as the *ex-officio* Principal of the college. The medium of instruction at that time was Urdu.

The college became a constituent of the Osmania University in December 1947 when the latter became an autonomous body. A full-time Principal was in charge of the institution from 1952, when it began to function as an independent college. The medium of instruction in the college was changed to English from the academic year 1950-51.

The Osmania University handed over the administrative control of the college to the Government of Hyderabad on the 1st October 1956, just on the eve of the reorganisation of the States, and it was subsequently transferred to the new Mysore State on the 1st November 1956. The college was affiliated to the Karnatak University in the year 1957.

Pre-University courses were introduced in the college from the year 1956-57 and the three-year degree courses from the year 1957-58. These courses were being conducted according to the existing syllabus of the Osmania University. The syllabus of the Karnatak University came into force for the Pre-University courses during the year 1958-59 and subsequently for the three-year degree courses, so that by the year 1061-62, the college adopted only the syllabus of the Karnatak University for all its courses.

Provision has been made in the college for imparting instruction in a variety of subjects, namely, Physics, Chemistry, Mathematics, Botany, Zoology, Philosophy, Psychology, Economics, Political Science, Sociology, History and Anthropology. All these subjects, except the last two, are taught both as major and minor subjects. History and Anthropology are taught only as minor subjects. Besides these subjects, Kannada, Hindi, Marathi, Sanskrit, Urdu and Persian are taught both as major and minor language subjects. English is taught as a compulsory subject. It is also taught as an additional language in lieu of the regional language.

The college has a good library. The strength of the college has increased rapidly from the year 1958-59, when there were only 366 students. There were 640 students on the rolls on the 1st

July 1962, and 710 students as on the 1st July 1964. The staff of the college which was forty in the year 1958-59 had also increased to fifty-three during the year 1964-65.

Among the other activities of the college, mention may be made of the National Cadet Corps which is functioning from the year 1960.

Sri Sharanabasaveshwara College of Arts and Science, Gulbarga

The Sri Sharanabasaveshwara College of Arts and Science, Gulbarga, is a private institution run by the Sri Sharanabasaveshwara Vidyavardhaka Sangha. It was established in August 1956. Although the beginning was humble, the growth of the institution has been very encouraging. The strength of the college which was only twenty-four in the year 1956-57, rose to one hundred and thirty in 1957-58, three hundred and forty-three in 1958-59, four hundred and thirty in 1959-60 and five hundred and ten in 1960-61. As on the 1st October 1964, the strength of the college was 750. A new building costing about ten lakhs of rupees has been constructed to accommodate this large number of students.

The college was affiliated to the Osmania University in the year 1956-57, but during the next year it was affiliated to the Karnatak University. The following courses were available in the college during the year 1964-65 :—

(1) B.A. (Major) with Kannada, Economics, Mathematics, Hindi, Sociology and English.

(2) B.A. (Minor) with Kannada, Hindi, Marathi, Urdu, Mathematics, Statistics, Sociology, Politics and History.

(3) B.Sc. (Major) with Mathematics, Chemistry and Botany.

(4) B.Sc. (Minor) with Botany, Statistics and Physics.

During the year of its inception in 1956, the college imparted instruction only for the Pre-University course in Science. Then in the following year, Pre-University course in Arts as well as the courses for Part I of the B.A. and B.Sc. were started. From the year 1959-60 and onwards the college is imparting instruction for the Pre-University courses in Arts and Science as well as for all the three parts of the courses for the B.A. and the B.Sc. degrees.

The staff of the college consisted of a Principal, a Vice-Principal (both of the status of Professors), four senior lecturers, twenty-six lecturers and six demonstrators as on the 1st October, 1964. The college had a well-equipped library consisting of about 8,000 volumes. A hostel was also attached where accommodation for about one hundred students was provided.

Shankar College, Yadgir

The Shankar College, Yadgir, is a private institution founded by the Chandrasekhara Education Society in the year 1953. It was imparting instruction during the year 1964-65 in the Pre-University courses in Arts and Science, the three parts of the B.A. degree and part I of the B.Sc. degree courses in some of the subjects. The number of students studying in the college as on the 1st December 1965 was about 120.

The college was housed in a rented building in which the accommodation was inadequate. The classes for parts II and III of the B.Sc. degree examination had not yet been started owing to inadequacy of accommodation.

The staff of the college consisted, during the year 1964-65, of a Principal, two Professors, ten lecturers and two demonstrators. There is a free boarding hostel for the benefit of the poor students of the college.

Veeramma Gangasiri College for Women, Gulbarga

The establishment of a separate college for girls had been a long felt need of the region, and the Hyderabad-Karnatak Education Society started the Srimathi Veeramma Gangasiri College for Women, Gulbarga, during the year 1965-66, with the co-operation of the generous public and a donation of Rs. 50,000 from Shri Basanna Gangasiri. The college is affiliated to the Karnatak University and was conducting only the Pre-University course in Arts. The subjects taught were (1) English, (2) Kannada, (3) Marathi, (4) Urdu, (5) Hindi, (6) Arabic, (7) Economics, (8) History, (9) Sociology, (10) Political Science and (11) Hindustani Music.

The student strength of the college was 36 and there were eight teachers.

A hostel accommodating about 50 students was also provided

PROFESSIONAL AND TECHNICAL EDUCATION

As on 1st December 1965, there were a Government Polytechnic, a Junior Technical School and five professional and technical colleges in the district, which included an Engineering College, a Medical College, a Law College, a College of Commerce and a Training College. Brief descriptions of these institutions are given below :—

Government Polytechnic, Gulbarga

The Government Polytechnic, Gulbarga, was started in the year 1955 by the Government of Hyderabad with only the Diploma course in civil engineering. Forty students were admitted to the course that year. The intake of students was increased to 120 per year after the States' reorganisation—sixty in civil engineering, thirty in mechanical engineering and thirty in electrical

engineering. The intake was further increased to 180 from the year 1961-62.

The following statement indicates the number of students admitted to the three diploma courses during the last five years commencing from 1960-61 :—

Courses of Instruction	Number of admissions				
	1960-61	1961-62	1962-63	1963-64	1964-65
1. Diploma in Civil Engineering.	60	90	93	66	66
2. Diploma in Mechanical Engineering	30	45	45	66	66
3. Diploma in Electrical Engineering.	39	45	56	66	66
Total .	129	180	194	198	108

The staff of the institution consisted of a Principal, three heads of sections (all gazetted), thirteen lecturers, seven assistant lecturers, three demonstrators and seven instructors, as on the 1st March, 1965.

The polytechnic is housed in its own building constructed at a cost of about six and a half lakhs of rupees. The new building was opened on the 23rd November 1960. Laboratories and workshops were constructed during the year 1961-62, at a cost of about one and a half lakhs of rupees.

The institution awarded eighty-two State (general) scholarships, twelve Government of India merit-*cum*-means scholarships and fourteen Government of India backward class scholarships during 1961-62. It also awarded forty-two freeships and sixty half-freeships during that year. There is a well-equipped library for the benefit of the students. The Gulbarga Rotary Club has donated 182 technical books costing about Rs. 2,300 to the library.

Seth Shankarlal Lahoti Law College, Gulbarga

The Seth Shankarlal Lahoti Law College, Gulbarga, was established by the Hyderabad-Karnatak Education Society during the year 1960-61 and is affiliated to the Karnatak University. Admission to the college is open to all graduates in Arts, Science or Commerce. The institution offers a two-year course in law leading to the LL.B. degree.

The following statement indicates the number of admissions to the college during the five years from 1960-61 to 1964-65.

Year	*Preliminary*	*1st Year LL.B.*	*2nd Year LL.B.*
1960-61	7	100	..
1961-62	..	75	34
1962-63	..	78	34
1963-64	..	65	20
1964-65	..	94	20

The staff consisted during the year 1964-65 of a Principal, two full-time lecturers and four part-time lecturers. There is a library attached to the college.

Engineering College, Gulbarga

The Hyderabad-Karnatak Education Society, which was formed mainly with the object of providing facilities for the development of education in the educationally backward Hyderabad-Karnatak areas, was responsible for the establishment of an Engineering College in Gulbarga in September 1958. The college was then temporarily located by the side of the Government Polytechnic, Gulbarga, with a skeleton staff. The foundation stone of the new college building was laid on the 15th October, 1958 and it was completed by the end of June 1959.

The college is managed by a governing body with a chairman, a secretary and ten other members. It provides instruction in three branches of engineering, namely, civil, mechanical and electrical, leading to the B.E. degree of the Karnatak University, to which the institution is affiliated. One hundred and twenty students were being admitted every year, for undergoing the degree courses. The college was providing instruction according to the syllabus of the Karnatak University, for a three-year course during the years 1958-59, 1959-60 and 1960-61. But from the year 1960-61, it started the five-year course with the approval of the Karnatak University, the Central and the State Governments. Accordingly, one hundred and twenty students were admitted to the first year of the five-year course during 1960-61 in addition to the admission of one hundred and twenty students for the three-year course already made during that year. However, admissions were made from the year 1961-62 and onwards only for the five-year course, the three-year course having been abolished from that year. The total strength of students in the college as on the 1st December 1965 was 428.

The college has a qualified staff headed by a Principal, three professors, eleven assistant professors, fourteen lecturers and eleven assistant lecturers, in addition to other technical staff. The institution has a good library containing a number of books on various aspects of engineering. New books are being added to the library every year to make it up-to-date. About 100 journals on engineering and other technical subjects were also being made available for the reference of students. The Azad Memorial Hostel attached to the college was providing accommodation for about three hundred and fifty students.

The Government of India is awarding some merit-*cum*-means scholarships every year to deserving students of the college.

Sri Sharanabasaveshwara College of Commerce, Gulbarga

The Shri Sharanabasaveshwara College of Commerce, Gulbarga, is also one of the colleges run by the Sri Sharanabasaveshwara Vidyavardhaka Sangha, Gulbarga. It was started in the year 1961, and was the only Commerce College located in the Hyderabad Karnatak area. The college offers instruction in the Pre-University course in Commerce and the three-year degree course leading to B.Com. There were about one hundred students in the college as on the 1st January 1965. The institution is affiliated to the Karnatak University. There were twelve lecturers among its staff as on the 1st January 1965 in addition to a Principal. One independent N.C.C. Rifles platoon was functioning in the college. A new college building was being constructed with the help of liberal grants received from the State Government.

Government B.Ed. College, Gulbarga

The Government B.Ed. College, Gulbarga, was started in the year 1955 to cater to the needs of the untrained graduates of the Hyderabad-Karnatak area. The training imparted is for the B.Ed. degree. The college had been affiliated to the Osmania University, till the reorganisation of the State, after which it was affiliated to the Karnatak University. The number of trainees during the year 1964-65 was eighty. The trainees were mostly drawn from Government and aided institutions, but there were some private candidates also. There were twelve members on the staff of the college as on the 1st October 1964 including a Principal and a Vice-Principal.

The students, besides getting coaching for Parts I and II of the degree course, are also trained in physical education and in carpentry. The latter helped the trainees to prepare the articles needed for teaching purposes such as ink-stand, wooden tray, pointer, black-board, etc. A vocational guidance bureau unit and an extension services department have also been established to enable the trainees to get the benefit of vocational guidance and to acquaint themselves with the modern trends in education. A hostel providing accommodation for a limited number of trainees is also attached. There is also a well-equipped library.

The college has a registered planning forum which undertakes educational surveys, frequently. A few stipends of the value of Rs. 30 per month are being given to deserving private candidates.

Medical College, Gulbarga

The Medical College, Gulbarga, was started by the Hyderabad-Karnatak Education Society in June 1963. It offers instruction both for the Pre-Professional and the M.B.B.S. degree courses. One hundred and ten students were being admitted to the Pre-Professional course every year. The college is affiliated to the Karnatak University. It had a qualified staff consisting of a

Principal, two professors, two associate professors, seven lecturers and fourteen demonstrators, in addition to other technical staff, as on the 1st September 1965.

The institution has laboratories equipped with all the requirements specified by the Karnatak University and the Indian Medical Council. A new college building was under construction. There were separate buildings for conducting the Pre-Professional and Pre-Clinical courses.

An attached hospital with a bed strength of about 600 was being constructed by the Government. The Maulana Azad Memorial Hostel constructed by the Education Society is providing accommodation to the students. The principal and the professors are also provided with quarters. The residential quarters for the other members of the staff were under construction.

Junior Technical School, Gulbarga

The Junior Technical School, Gulbarga, was established in the year 1964 by the Department of Technical Education. The course of instruction is spread over a period of three years, the minimum educational qualification required for admission being a pass in the VII Standard. The number of admissions was restricted to 60 per year. The minimum age for admission was 12 years.

The course is equivalent to that of the high school comprising standards VIII, IX and X. The subjects of study are both general and technical and include—(1) English, (2) Regional language, (3) Hindi, (4) Social Studies, (5) Science, (6) Mathematics, (7) Workshop — theory and practice, (8) Engineering Drawing and (9) Elements of Mechanical and Electrical Engineering.

The staff of the institution consisted of a Principal and three lecturers, as on the 1st September 1965, besides certain other technical staff.

The school has its own building. The students are not charged any fees for the course, for the first five years from the inception of the school. They are awarded stipends at the rate of Rs. 10 each per month for the 1st and 2nd year courses and Rs. 15 per month for the 3rd year course.

Dance, Drama and Music

Although there are no Government schools for the cultivation of fine arts like painting, music and dancing in the district, there are a few private institutions which are catering for the needs of the local art-lovers.

Bharatiya Sangeeth Vidyalaya, Gulbarga

The Bharatiya Sangeeth Vidyalaya, Gulbarga, was started in the year 1954 by a group of music-lovers of the town. It offers instruction in vocal music, Hindustani style, and tabla. The institution is affiliated to the Gandharva Mahavidyalaya, Bombay, and conducts examinations under its supervision and control.

There were thirty students in the institution as on 1st December 1965 and they were being trained for the *Visharad* degree and other examinations. The Vidyalaya is housed in its own newly constructed building costing about twenty thousand rupees. The Government of Mysore gave a grant of Rs. 10,000 and the District Local Board, a sum of Rs. 3,000 towards the cost of its construction.

The institution had on its rolls, as on the 1st December 1965, one hundred members, each paying a monthly subscription of two rupees. It arranges music concerts periodically by famous musicians.

Natyakalopasaka Sangha, Gulbarga

The Natyakalopasaka Sangha, Gulbarga, was started in March 1960 by some authors and dramatists of Gulbarga. Its main objects are the encouragement of the arts of drama and dance and the enactment of dramas for the benefit of the public. The motto of this institution is "education through entertainment". It is managed by a president, a vice-president, a general secretary and three other members. There were eighty members on the rolls of the Sangha as on the 1st October 1964, among whom were thirty amateur actors and eight actresses. One of the special features of the activities of the Sangha is the enactment of dramas in Kannada, Marathi, Urdu and Hindi, and the net proceeds are donated for charitable purposes. It is making new experiments and innovations on the stage.

The future plans of the Sangha include the construction of an open-air theatre with full dramatic equipments and establishment of a training centre for amateur actors and actresses in Gulbarga.

Education of the Handicapped

Institute for Blind Boys, Gulbarga

The Institute for Blind Boys, Gulbarga, is a residential institution under the control of the Education Department. It was started on 1st June 1962 with a Superintendent in charge, who was specially trained in America in the education and vocational guidance of the handicapped. The courses of study provided are literary as well as vocational. Literary education is imparted through the medium of "Bharati Braille" which is taught in the usual English form but in Kannada. Although there is provision for admission of eighty to hundred boys every year, the strength during 1964-65 was only 35. Generally, poor boys of the age of five and above are selected on the

basis of an interview and test, in which the ability and capacity of the boy to learn are assessed. Handicrafts are also taught in this institute. The school is equipped with all the necessary materials specially designed for the teaching of the blind. The curriculum followed is that prescribed for all normal children, but with suitable modifications according to the needs of blind children. The institution has qualified teachers specially trained in the education of the blind.

School for Deaf Boys and Girls, Gulbarga.

The School for Deaf Boys and Girls, Gulbarga, is a residential school under the control of the Education Department and is in charge of the Superintendent, Institute for Blind Boys, Gulbarga. It was started in June 1963. Education is imparted through modern techniques of teaching the deaf. Although there is provision for admission of 40 students, the strength during the year 1964-65 was 25. The school is equipped with all teaching aids specially designed for the deaf. The curriculum followed is that prescribed for normal children but with suitable modifications, keeping in view the needs of deaf children. The school has specially trained staff for the teaching of the deaf. Generally poor deaf children of the age-group 5-11 are selected for admission on the basis of an interview and test in which the ability and capacity of the child are assessed. Handicrafts such as tailoring, embroidery, knitting, and paper flower-making are also taught in the institution.

It was proposed to conduct nursery classes and to start high school classes as soon as the necessary equipments were received in both the institutions mentioned above. About two acres of land were allotted for constructing school buildings as well as staff quarters and a hostel.

SOCIAL EDUCATION

Social education in the Hyderabad Karnatak area was mainly provided in adult night schools. The system of social education in Gulbarga district was also of the same pattern, and the Education Department was concerned only with the supervision and payment of grants to these adult night schools maintained by private persons or agencies. Social education under the Community Development and National Extension Services was attended to by the social education organisers in the Blocks.

CULTURAL AND LITERARY SOCIETIES

Kannada Sahitya Sangha, Gulbarga

The Kannada Sahitya Sangha, Gulbarga, was established in 1932. Its main objects are the promotion and diffusion of useful knowledge and culture through the medium of literary classes, lectures, and other allied activities. It is a non-political and non-communal association. The management of the Sangha was vested

during the year 1964-65 in a committee consisting of a president, two vice-presidents, a secretary and seven other members.

The Sangha had a fine library of about 5,500 books in Kannada, English and Hindi as on the 1st April 1965. It has an attached free reading room in which forty journals of several languages, besides important newspapers, are provided. The institution has constructed an open air theatre named "Sri Ranga Mandira" at a cost of about Rs. 12,000 which is being made available for public functions. It conducts Nadahabba every year on a grand scale during the Dasara festivities. The Sangha is a registered body and has a building of its own costing about Rs. 50,000.

Basava Samiti, Gulbarga

The Kendra (Central) Basava Samiti, Bangalore, founded in 1964, has appointed an *ad hoc* committee for the district to organise its activities in the area. Dissemination of knowledge about the social and cultural reforms preached by Basaveshwara and his associates, promotion of understanding and amity among different communities by expounding the humanitarian teachings of those celebrities and encouragement of comparative studies of various schools of philosophy are among the objectives of the Samiti.

Marathi Sahitya Mandal, Gulbarga

The Marathi Sahitya Mandal, Gulbarga, was started in the year 1944. It has a good library and a reading room, both of which are available for the use of the public. It conducts classes for the various Marathi examinations and also arranges study circles and discourses. Lectures are also arranged in several languages, thus enabling the various authors and litterateurs to meet on a common platform and exchange views. The Mandal has proposals to construct an open air theatre.

The institution was managed during the year 1964-65 by a committee consisting of a president, two vice-presidents, two joint secretaries and six other members. It has constructed a new building costing about Rs. 15,000. The Mandal is doing useful work in propagating ideas of fraternity and brotherhood among the authors and dramatists of different languages.

Anjuman-e-Taraqqi-e-Urdu, Gulbarga

The Anjuman-e-Taraqqi-e-Urdu is a Urdu literary society in the district. It is a branch of the all-India organisation of the same name with headquarters at Aligarh. This society was started in the year 1957 It is doing good work in enriching Urdu literature. It has brought to light several old works of classical Urdu writers.

Cultural Heritage

Gulbarga district has been the birth-place of many eminent men of letters, who, through their scholarship and literary fervour, have enriched the region culturally.

Nrupatunga, the author of the famous " Kavirajamarga " was a king of the Rashtrakuta dynasty which ruled these areas between eighth and the tenth centuries, with its capital at " Manyakheta ", now called Malkhed in Seram taluk of the district. " Kavirajamarga " is the earliest extant work in the Kannada language and is a treatise on Kannada rhetoric.

Ponna, the first " Kavichakravarthi " in Kannada literature, flourished during the reign of Krishna III, who ruled from Malkhed during the second quarter of the tenth century. He is the author of the famous "Shantipurana" and other great works. His " Shantipurana " is regarded as one of the three gems in Kannada literature, the other two being " Adipurana " by Pampa and " Ajitapurana " by Ranna. A great homage has been paid to Ponna by almost all the subsequent Jaina poets. In the use of similies, Ponna occupies the same place in the Kannada literature as Kalidasa in Sanskrit. The great Apabhramsha poet, Pushpadanta, as also several other literary figures, flourished at the Rashtrakuta court.

Jayathirthayati, a disciple of Akshobhya Tirtha, who was one of the four disciples of Sri Madhvacharya, made the old town of Malkhed his centre of activity and acquired great fame as the commentator of the works of Sri Madhvacharya. His Brindavan is situated in Malkhed, and every year the followers of the Madhva mathas visit the place on the occasion of the annual ceremony.

Devara Dasimayya, a pioneer Vachanakara in Kannada literature, lived at Mudnur in Shorapur taluk.

Devapur village in Shorapur taluk is claimed to be the birthplace of Lakshmisha, the author of the famous " Jaimini Bharatha."

Raja Kalichand was a poet of repute, proficient in both the Urdu and Persian languages. Khwaja Bande Nawaz is held in high esteem, as the first prose writer in Urdu. Among his valuable works, only seven books are now available. He wrote commentaries on the Koran, and treatises on Islam.

Classical Indian music has a universal appeal to the musically minded people of the district. Though the district has not produced many eminent musicians, noted artistes from outside are invited occasionally to give performances. Dramatic companies of repute from various parts of the State often enact their plays in the district and they are patronised by the people.

TABLE I

Literacy in Taluks

Taluks	*Literates, 1951*			*Percentage of literates*	*Literates, 1961*			*Percentage of literates*
	Men	*Women*	*Total*		*Men*	*Women*	*Total*	
Gulbarga	.. 23,875	5,925	29,800	16.0	43,346	12,925	56,271	24.6
Chittapur	. 7,270	973	8,243	5.7	19,761	4,140	23,901	13.6
Yadgir	.. 9,118	1.228	10,346	6.5	16,685	3,812	20,497	12.8
Shahapur	.. 6,190	456	6,646	5.4	12,768	2,292	15,060	10.9
Shorapur	.. 7,000	981	7,981	6.4	14,559	2,198	16,757	12.1
Jevargi	.. 3,960	307	4,267	4.7	10,659	1,496	12,155	10.9
Afzalpur	.. 3,224	308	3,532	4.9	9,270	1,398	10,668	11.8
Aland	.. 8,027	606	8,633	6.4	19,221	3,603	22,824	14.2
Chincholi	.. 6,319	577	6,896	7.5	13,372	2,207	15,579	14.4
Seram	.. 5,234	652	5,886	7.1	10,261	2,118	12,379	13.6
Gulbarga District	.. 80,217	12.013	92,230	7.6	169,902	36,189	206,091	14.7

TABLE II

Literacy in Towns

Towns	Literates, 1951			Percentage of literates	Literates, 1961			Percentage of literates
	Men	Women	Total		Men	Women	Total	
Gulbarga ..	17,329	5,384	22,713	29.4	27,816	10,746	38,562	40.0
Aland .	1,691	278	1,969	12.6	3,398	991	4,389	24.4
Chincholi ..	965	219	1,184	22.1	1,444	544	1,988	32.9
Chittapur ..	1,042	159	1,201	16.1	1,875	477	2,352	20.7
Shahabad .	1,625	420	2,045	12.3	3,930	1.083	5,013	24.5
Seram .	1.421	308	1,729	21.8	2,092	695	2,787	32.7
Shahapur ..	1,309	213	1,522	14.4	2,499	740	3,239	27.5
Shorapur ..	2,848	700	3,548	18.3	4,359	1,381	5,740	32.5
Yadgir ..	3,011	655	3,666	16.6	5,394	1,903	7,297	22.6
Gurmatkal ..	1,094	168	1,262	12.9	1,713	481	2,194	28.3
Gulbarga District .	32,335	8,504	40,839	21.5	54,520	19,041	73,561	32.5

CHAPTER XVI

MEDICAL AND PUBLIC HEALTH SERVICES

Early History

HAVING regard to the fact that Gulbarga district formed a part of the old Hyderabad State prior to the reorganisation of States, it may not be out of place to trace here, briefly, the growth and development of the Medical and Public Health Services prior to integration.

Information about medical institutions in the district in the early days is very meagre. Ayurveda and Unani systems were the accepted systems in the sphere of medical relief practised all over India from the early times. These systems had their roots in the culture, the climate and atmosphere of the country. The native pandits or indigenous vaidyas were very popular in the rural areas, and the afflicted persons went to them to receive medical attention. The medicines supplied were well within the means of the clientele and the vaidyas also saw to it that unnecessary drugging was avoided. Ordinary herbs and plants, easily available in the villages, were freely made use of. Many simple remedies based on a knowledge of Ayurveda were efficacious once the people knew how to use them and when. During the days when the district was governed by the Muslims, the Unani system as practised by hakims was also popular. But this did not displace the practice of Ayurveda, which was also widely prevalent. The Ayurvedic doctors were noted for their sound knowledge of the medical properties of the various plants and herbs. The hakims did not penetrate to the rural areas, their practice being generally confined more or less to the urban areas. They enjoyed not only the patronage of the Muslim aristocracy but also of a considerable section of the Hindus. The vaidyas continued their practice of Ayurveda, both in the urban and the rural areas and the common people had great faith in them. Local folklore and the inscriptions do not give us any definite picture of the type of medical institutions in the old days, but it can be safely presumed that a good system of indigenous medicine did exist in the district. The system of Indian medicine was so popular that the rulers of the Hyderabad State, the Nizams, also gave support to it.

With the progressively greater contact with the East India Company and the British officers, the western system of medicine came into vogue in the State. Nasir-ud-Dowla, the sixth Nizam, ushered in the allopathic system of medicine.

The State Medical Department whose functions were purely curative came into existence in the year 1844. Except for vaccination against small-pox, no organisation existed for preventive medicine until 1912. Compulsory primary vaccination of children between the ages of six and twelve months was introduced in the State in 1922. In that year, the Public Health Department was established. In 1913, the Government appointed the chief of the Medical Department as the Sanitary Commissioner also. The civil surgeons in the districts were appointed as District Sanitary Officers. Travelling dispensaries, one for each district, were established and they were manned by assistant surgeons who were called the District Sanitary Assistants. At the end of 1934, the Public Health Department was reorganised, and a Deputy Director of Public Health was put in charge. The Medical and Public Health Departments were controlled by a Director assisted by two Deputy Directors, one for Medical and the other for Public Health. The Unani units in the district, manned by hakims, were placed under the State Unani Medical Department. The development of medical institutions in the Gulbarga district started in 1896 with the inauguration of the civil hospital. Later on, civil dispensaries were started in several tahsil headquarters, both for in-patients and out-patients. Ayurvedic and Unani dispensaries were also located in mofussil centres.

Health and Sanitation

Organised public health service in this country is of comparatively recent origin. Till about 1870, the medical services in India were mainly concerned with the improvement of the health of the members of the military services. Though the heavy mortality caused by the out-breaks of epidemics such as plague and malaria awakened the Government to the need for more active State participation in improving the health of the population, the efforts were confined, till the reforms of 1919, to the promotion of sanitation by making it one of the important duties of the local bodies. Progress was, however, very slow and the first All-India Conference in 1911 noticed that very few towns and villages in India had any system of conservancy. The responsibility for local medical and public health administration was transferred to the Provincial and State Governments under the 1919 reforms. Though this widened the field of the Provincial and State Governments' activities in this direction, the quality of work still suffered from a lack of proper guidance and supervision over the local bodies to whom the work had been entrusted. The result was that only a fraction of the ground had been covered so far. The level of health services was unsatisfactory even in urban areas and the position was much

worse in rural parts. Sanitary reform, village planning and housing schemes were practically unknown in the rural parts of the State, while such medical and maternity relief as had been provided was totally inadequate to meet the needs of the masses.

The Royal Commission on agriculture remarked in 1928 that in the rural areas of the country, sanitation in any accepted sense of the word, was practically non-existent. The bank of a stream or the margin of a tank was commonly used as a public latrine, and this gave rise to hookworm infestation and to the spread of all the diseases which are caused by a polluted water supply, for the same water was in many places used both for drinking and for bathing. The two outstanding problems connected with rural sanitation were: (1) the prevention of soil pollution by indiscriminate defecation and (2) the provision of adequate and pure water supply for the village. A detailed survey of hookworm infection was completed in 1927 by the anti-Ankylostomiasis campaign of the International Health Board under the Rockfeller Foundation of America and the immensity of the problem was clearly demonstrated. As a result, the Government took over all further work and started the Rural Sanitation Campaign in 1928 for the prevention and control of hookworm infection in the State. The rural sanitation staff consisted of one sanitation officer and six rural sanitation units which worked in the several districts by rotation. The chief activities of the units were (1) educational propaganda on prevention of hookworm infestation and the dangers of soil pollution; (2) hook-worm treatment and (3) provision of latrines in the villages.

Medical Relief in Rural Areas

Till 1924, the amount spent on medical relief in rural areas, was only a small fraction of the total expenditure on hospitals and dispensaries in the State. The great mass of the village population had no easy access to qualified doctors and had to content themselves to a great extent with the services of unqualified men. In the year 1924, the Government considered the problem of bringing qualified medical aid within the easy reach of the rural population and felt that immediate steps should be taken in this direction. With the funds at their disposal, the Government realised that the establishment and maintenance of a well-equipped public hospital or dispensary in almost every village or for each small area was not possible and that some alternative scheme had to be devised whereby something substantial might be done at once, at least as an earnest of the Government's desire to bring medical relief within the easy reach of the rural population. Accordingly, the Government inaugurated a scheme for opening subsidised rural dispensaries. Under the scheme, qualified practitioners of both Western and Indian systems of medicine were given small subsidies as an inducement to settle down in selected villages and set up private practice. The liability

of the Government on account of the scheme was restricted to the payment of subsidy for the medical practitioner and the midwife. The cost of medicines and other contingent charges were met by the local boards concerned. The grant of subsidy was subject to the condition that the medical practitioner should give free treatment to the needy. The practitioner was at liberty to accept such fees for medical attendance and treatment as he could get from well-to-do patients. Besides these dispensaries, some rural dispensaries were maintained entirely from the funds of local boards.

Vital Statistics

In the early days,there was no special agency for the registration of births and deaths, other than the village officers. These village officers were required to send monthly returns to the tahsil office from where the lists were transmitted to the district office to be later forwarded to the Sanitary Commissioner's Office. With a view to securing better registration of details connected with births and deaths, rules were revised in 1915-16, according to which inspecting officers had to scrutinise entries in the registers. Again, in 1918, a new regulation was introduced to improve the system of collection, compilation and publication of vital statistics. According to this new regulation, the entries with reference to births and deaths had to be certified by a technical officer after a sample check-up in the area concerned. This proved helpful in removing irregular and exaggerated entries.

Variations in the population in the past decades are an important indication in determining the problem of vital statistics of a district. The following table gives the variations in the total population of the district for the first six decades of the century.

Year		*Persons*	*Variation*	*Variation 1901—1961*
1901	..	8,83,062	..	
1911	..	9,64,468	+81,406	
1921	..	8,87,875	—76,593	
1931	..	9,90,505	+1,02,630	
1941	..	10,59,716	+69,211	
1951	..	12,13,608	+1,53,892	
1961	..	13,99,457	+1,85,849	+5,16,395

The progressive rise in population is attributable to a falling death rate and a higher birth rate. The perceptible decline in the death rate is due to the improvements in medical attention and the efficacy of modern drugs.

The following table gives the birth and death rates per thousand in the district of Gulbarga for the years 1958 to 1963 :—

Year		*Birth rate*	*Death rate*
1958	..	7.2	6.1
1959	..	8.1	5.2
1960	..	7.9	4.6
1961	..	10.5	6.5
1962	..	6.0	4.1
1963	..	4 9	3.5

From the above table, it is seen that in recent years the death rate has been falling because of intensive preventive measures undertaken by the Public Health authorities. There is a systematic drive to control epidemics and thousands of people are being vaccinated or inoculated. As in the rest of India, fever of different kinds is responsible for a large number of deaths in the district. The district is rather poorly equipped from the point of view of preventive or curative institutions, large numbers of which alone can effectively check the death rate. The Government are trying to improve matters in this regard.

The following table gives the infant mortality rate and the maternal mortality rate in Gulbarga district for the years 1958 to 1963 :—

Year		*Infant mortality rate*	*Maternal mortality rate*
1958	..	53.2	7.7
1959	..	33.2	11.9
1960	..	32.5	4.2
1961	..	37.1	3.4
1962	.	35.2	5.3
1963	.	30.5	3.54

The above figures indicate that, by and large, the mortality rates, both among the infants and mothers, are generally falling thanks to the effective medical aid that is being provided to them by Government and other medical men in the district.

The following table shows the number of live births, still births, reported deaths of infants under one year of age and total number of reported deaths in the district for the years 1958 to 1961 :—

Particulars	1958	1959	1960	1961	1962	1963
Live births ..	9,613	10,883	10,833	14,395	8,676	7,053
Still births ..	769	865	794	196	..	..
Reported deaths of infants under one year of age	512	361	353	561	306	212
Total reported deaths ..	8,120	6,928	6,259	8,914	5,908	5,259

The following table shows the common diseases for which the majority of patients were treated in the district during 1961-62 :—

Diseases		*Number treated*
Anaemias	..	23,982
Scabies	..	23,495
Dysentery (Amoebic)	..	20,567
'Other' Digestive diseases	..	27,682
Influenza	..	18,790
Skin infections	..	16,332
Inflammatory diseases of the eye	.	13,711
Bronchitis (Chronic and others)	..	12,118
Teeth and Gum diseases	..	11,979

The figures show that 'other' digestive diseases, anaemias, scabies, dysentery (amoebic) and influenza had the highest incidence.

The figures of the common diseases for which the majority of patients were treated in the district during 1964-65 are furnished below :—

Diseases			*Number treated*
Anaemia	..	..	8,602
Dysentery (Amoebic)	..	..	14,915
'Other' digestive diseases	..	..	24,137
Skin infections	.	.	27,232
Pneumonia	..	..	4,283
'Other' fevers	..	..	23,246
Respiratory diseases	.	..	27,034
Ulcers		.	20,205

The figures show that skin infections, 'other' fevers, respiratory diseases and 'other' digestive diseases had the highest incidence.

Epidemics

When an epidemic breaks out in the district, the health sub-inspectors are alerted to work in close unison and under the general direction of the District Health Officer. The health inspectors or the sub-inspectors tour the area in order to know the extent and severity of the epidemic. All the wells in the area are thoroughly disinfected with potassium permanganate and the villagers are advised to isolate the sick and to evacuate the houses. People living in the infected areas are discouraged from entertaining friends and relatives. Disinfection and fumigation are intensively carried out wherever possible. It is the duty of the health inspectors to enquire into and ascertain the causes, origin and spread of epidemic diseases within their jurisdictions and send periodical reports to the nearest medical officer and also to the District Health Officer. Various conditions injurious to public health are systematically scrutinised so as to minimise the incidence. Special attention is paid to water supply sources and to the disposal of refuse. During jatras and uruses, special staff is requisitioned to control any outbreak of epidemics.

The following table shows the number of deaths caused by various diseases during the years 1958, 1959, 1960 and 1961 in the district :—

Causes	1958	1959	1960	1961
Plague ..	5	2	6	5
Small-pox ..	549	108	35	56
Cholera ..	62	2	2	555
Malaria ..	748	1,797	1,252	1,712
Typhoid ..	492	37	369	464
Other fevers ..	3,199	2,580	2,142	3,008
Dysentery and Diarrhoea	286	110	120	227
Respiratory diseases ..	554	340	387	349
Tuberculosis ..	118	51	227	268

The figures reveal that small-pox, malaria, typhoid, other fevers and respiratory diseases had the highest incidence.

Cholera

There had been a considerable decrease in the incidence of cholera in the district in 1959 and 1960. But it took a heavy toll in the year 1961. This disease had become endemic and sometimes assumed the form of an epidemic. In almost all the villages in the district, general sanitation was poor, the surroundings being used for indiscriminate defecation resulting in the fly nuisance. There is no protected water supply in many of the villages; water scarcity is acutely felt in summer months and people drink impure water from ponds and pools. On top of these, there is a lack of a sense of hygiene and cleanliness. Elementary precautions in the disposal of waste are neglected. Isolation of patients was not always possible because of lack of co-operation. All that the authorities could do whenever a place was threatened with the outbreak of cholera was to rush necessary health staff to the place for mass inoculations within a radius of five miles. During the year 1961-62, when cholera broke out in the district, anti-cholera inoculations were conducted both in the affected and surrounding villages. Chlorination of drinking water wells was periodically attended to. All necessary precautions were taken to check the spread. Mass inoculations alone cannot check the spread of the disease. It is very necessary that protected water supply facilities are provided in every inhabited place. Efforts are being made in the successive Five-Year Plans to extend the scheme of filtered and purified water supply to remote corners of the district. Underground drainage facilities are also necessary and the authorities are doing all that is possible in this direction.

Small-pox

Small-pox particularly affects children. Vaccination, being the only preventive, is done on a phased scale by the health staff. These vaccinations are done by trained vaccinators who are responsible to the District Health Officer. They are placed in the headquarters of each taluk. The vaccinators are required to get into touch with the Tahsildar for any assistance in the discharge of their duties. The vaccination work is carried on after a close verification of all birth registers and police patels' registers. Systematic house-to-house inspection of the whole town or village is conducted for detection of unprotected cases. The minimum outturn of work for each vaccinator is about two hundred successful vaccinations in a month. He is required to carry out not less than three thousand vaccinations in a year. In case of epidemics, the vaccinators have to rush to the infected areas in order to vaccinate all unprotected children and adults. All factories and schools are visited in an endeavour to vaccinate in the premises itself all those who are not protected. The school master and the factory manager are held responsible for obtaining the consent of those who are to be vaccinated. Re-vaccination, though not compulsory, is essential for protection against small-pox. During the year 1960-61, planned vaccination programmes were undertaken in all the health unit areas of the State. The expert committee for the control of

small-pox and cholera constituted in accordance with Government Order dated the 7th January 1959 suggested ways and means for eradication of small-pox and cholera in the State.

Plague

The district is now free from the ravages of plague. As in other parts of India, plague first made its appearance in the district in 1898-1899 after its initial outbreak in Bombay and occurred periodically sometimes in an epidemic form and sometimes in an endemic form. In recent years the incidence of plague is almost nil, after D.D.T. spraying work was undertaken in the district.

Influenza

The 1918-19 influenza epidemic is still remembered with horror by the people of the district. The first case came to the notice of the health authorities in June-July 1918. It soon assumed the form of a whirlwind epidemic affecting a vast number of the district's population. The first wave which lasted till September of the year was mild and not very harmful to life. But the second wave, which started in October was the worst both in rural and urban areas. Though at first sight it appeared to be a fever infection people were soon afflicted with severe infections of the upper respiratory tract which descended into pulmonary regions causing the worst type of pneumonia. As antibiotics were not then in existence some traditional remedies like the inhalation of irritants were thought of. This did not prove very successful and people succumbed quickly. In those days, the epidemic was called the Spanish flu. Such severity has not been noticed in the recent past.

In June 1957, another wave of influenza called the Singapore flu affected the entire district, though not with fatal results. This was an air-borne disease which quickly spread from person to person. Antibiotics proved very useful in stopping respiratory infections. The onset was sudden with rigors and high fever which went up in some cases to 105 degrees. The fall of temperature was also sudden leaving the patient utterly prostrate. Municipalities and Health Units spared no pains to isolate the patients and all congregations were stopped. The wave slowly disappeared by October 1957.

Malaria Eradication

The malaria control work was in progress in the old Mysore State even before the plan periods. But the operations were confined to areas of Malnad which were highly endemic for malaria. Gradually, the services were extended to other areas. In 1953, the State switched over to the National Malaria Control Programme, with the assistance of the Government of India and international agencies. As a result, five malaria control units were organised at Shimoga, Chickmagalur, Hassan, Mysore and Mandya. During the Second Plan period, by the end of 1957, additional control units were sanctioned making a total of 14.63 units in the State.

In the year 1958, the programme was switched over to the National Malaria Eradication Programme, bringing the total number of units to 19.13 so as to cover the entire State including the cities and municipalities. Consequently, the spraying programme was intensified and surveillance work introduced as per plan of operations. The malaria surveillance workers paid fortnightly visits to all the houses in their areas, investigated fever cases, took blood smears from all fever cases and treated them with anti-malaria drugs. Blood-smears collected were examined at the unit laboratory and the results communicated to the concerned officers. All the parasite positive cases were treated with Aminoquinolines and the cases were followed up till blood pictures showed negative results.

The medical officers in charge of medical institutions and the private practitioners were all requested to extend their co-operation in collecting blood smears from all fever cases and send them to the unit laboratory for examination.

In addition to appraisal surveys, the Medical Officer of Health of the National Malaria Eradication Unit also conducted mass blood surveys in and around the areas where parasite positive cases were reported. Malaria had been more wide spread, more far-reaching and had affected a larger number of people than any other disease. It had been one of the most formidable problems. But, as a result of the various measures, the disease has been now controlled to a great extent.

Health Organisation

The District Health Officer is the person in charge of the administration of public health matters in the district. He is responsible to the Director of Health Services, Bangalore. Since 1st June 1960, the District Health Officer is in over-all charge of all the medical institutions in the district at the taluk level. He is both a technical and administrative officer and deals with problems of health, control of epidemics, malaria eradication, maternity and child welfare, vital statistics, jatra sanitation, environmental sanitation, health education, site inspections, curative services and laboratory work associated with public health.

The District Health Officer is assisted in his duties by some medical officers of health, senior and junior health inspectors, public health nurses or health visitors, mid-wives and senior and junior laboratory technicians.

There were seventeen health centres of the Government of India pattern, seventeen rural and one urban family planning centres, one National Malaria Eradication Unit, one mid-wives' training centre, one leprosy centre and one district laboratory. All these medical institutions were under the control of the District Health Officer.

There were twenty-two Government of Mysore type health centres in the district, which were under the control of the Taluk Development Boards.

A statement showing the names of the various medical institutions, which were under the control of the District Health Officer in October 1965, their bed strength, the number of doctors, the number of nurses, the number of mid-wives, the daily average of in-patients and out-patients treated, and the expenditure incurred by those medical institutions during 1964-65 has been given at the end of the chapter.

The Medical Officer of Health, National Malaria Eradication Programme, is in over-all charge of the programme both technically and administratively regarding the work of malaria eradication.

Health Units

As stated above, there were seventeen health units of the Government of India type functioning in the district. Mysore is the pioneer State in establishing health units in the rural areas. It has been the policy of Government to render both curative and preventive services through these health units. Though these services in taluks are mainly through health units, there are other service units, *viz.*, dispensaries of different types, namely, local fund dispensary, reduced-scale local fund dispensary, mobile dispensary and combined dispensary. There were 12 combined dispensaries and two reduced-scale local fund dispensaries in the district in 1965.

The health units are established at the taluk or hobli level to serve a fixed population of the taluk. The health units are of two types—(1) health units of the Mysore pattern and (2) health units of Government of India pattern. Since 1957, as a policy, only Government of India type health units are being established. A number of these are receiving Central Government and international assistance.

The health units of the Government of India pattern serve a population of about 60,000. These units are located in the Community Development Blocks. The staff associated with such health units consists of one Medical Officer of Health (Gazetted), four midwives, one public health nurse or health visitor, one compounder and one junior health inspector. Besides these health units of the Government of India type, Government have also sanctioned for every 15,000 people, one health unit type dispensary on grant-in-aid basis. There were twenty-three such dispensaries in the district in October 1965. The staff associated with each such dispensary consisted of one Medical Officer, one junior health inspector, two mid-wives and one compounder.

Sub-centres of health are located in selected villages and are manned by junior health inspectors and qualified midwives. The Medical Officer of Health in charge of the primary unit regularly visits these sub-centres for holding clinics and to supervise the work done by the sub-centre staff. The main activities of these health units consist of curative services, including clinical work in the sub-centres, prevention and control of communicable diseases, improvement of environment sanitation, collection of vital statistics, maternity and child health work, health education and surveys, making proper sanitary arrangements in connection with fairs and festivals, supply of drugs and diet supplements to viable groups of the rural population.

The hospitals and dispensaries in the taluks render mainly curative services. Out-door services are provided in all the dispensaries. Only a few beds for emergency cases are provided in most dispensaries, except in the reduced scale local fund dispensaries. Wherever there are combined dispensaries, a separate ladies' section is working. Most of the dispensaries are established and maintained with contribution from the local bodies.

The staff generally associated with a dispensary consists of one medical officer, one compounder and one midwife. In the case of a combined dispensary, besides the above-mentioned staff there are one lady doctor, two midwives and one lady compounder. The taluk boards are having a senior or junior health inspector each. Their salaries are met out of the finances of the taluk boards.

Guinea-worm disease

Guinea worm disease was prevalent in Gulbarga and some other districts of Northern Mysore. Guinea worm units are established in the State to conduct surveys, hypochlorination of drinking water sources which have cyclopes, starting of nurseries of cyclope feeding fish and stocking of these fish in drinking water sources. In addition to these, permanent control measures like the provision of draw wells and the conversion or closure of step wells have also been undertaken in the district during the plan periods. A guinea worm unit is functioning in the district.

Leprosy

There are ten leprosy centres in the State, one of which is in Gulbarga district. Besides the sample surveys conducted by the staff of Bureau of Epidemiology, the staff attached to the leprosy subsidiary centres are also conducting the survey and follow-up of the cases with necessary treatment. Government have recently sanctioned ten survey, education and treatment centres for the district.

Tuberculosis

For the treatment of tuberculosis in the State, a T. B. ward is attached to each district headquarters hospital with a bed strength

ranging from eight to thirty-five. The T. B. ward attached to the District Hospital at Gulbarga has a provision of ten beds. There is also a T.B. clinic at Gulbarga ; one doctor, one social worker and one ayah were attached to this clinic. The doctor who was in charge of the T.B. clinic was also in charge of the T.B. ward in the District Hospital. There was one X-ray technician and one Radiographer, and these two officials were associated with both the T.B. clinic and T.B. ward at Gulbarga. The T.B. clinic is meant for the treatment of out-patients only. Daily about 45 out-patients were treated in the T.B. clinic. During the year 1961 an expenditure of Rs. 14,336 was incurred in connection with this clinic. The B.C.G. campaign was started in 1952 as a preventive measure against spread of tuberculosis and this campaign was being continued vigorously during the plan periods, in Gulbarga district also.

Medical Organisation

The District Surgeon is the head of the major hospitals in the district. He is also responsible to the Director of Health Services, Bangalore The medical institutions at the taluk level were transferred to the Public Health Department with effect from 1st June 1960, as stated already. Statements showing the medical institutions, both allopathic and Ayurvedic, under the direct control of the District Surgeon, Gulbarga, as in October 1965, have been given at the end of the chapter.

The following table shows the number of medical institutions in the district under the control of the District Surgeon as on 31st December 1964 :—

		Government	*Others*
Hospitals	..	3	1
Dispensaries	..	15	1
Total	..	18	2

The above figures are inclusive of the District Headquarters Hospital, Gulbarga and the Maternity and Children's Hospital (Zenana Hospital) as also Ayurvedic and Unani medical institutions. The district surgeon is in charge of the following medical institutions also.

The V. D. Clinic,
The T. B. Clinic,
The T.B. Ward,
The District Laboratory,
The School of Nursing attached to the District Hospital and
The School of Auxiliary Nurses and Midwives, Gulbarga.

Provision has been made for the treatment of infectious diseases, venereal diseases, dental diseases and ear, nose and throat troubles in the District Hospital, Gulbarga.

During the year 1959, a school for the training of nurses was established at Gulbarga with a training capacity of twenty students. The number of trainees was increased to twenty-five in the year 1961. Six nurses were deputed for training in Sister Tutors' Course at Delhi and Madras during 1959 and all the six were posted to the Training Schools at Gulbarga, Mercara and Hubli hospitals after their return from training.

During the year 1962 also, twenty-five nurses (twenty stipendiary and five non-stipendiary) received their training in the School of Nursing. Some of them were deputed for further training to the K. M. C. Hospital, Hubli.

In October 1965, eighteen stipendiary student nurses and four non-stipendiary student nurses were undergoing their training.

During 1963, a school for training auxiliary nurse-midwives was started at Gulbarga. During 1965, fifteen candidates completed their training and they were posted to work as auxiliary nurse-midwives in the Health Department.

In Gulbarga district, four primary health centres and their twelve sub-centres were receiving UNICEF assistance during 1960-61.

The management of the M.S.K. Mills, Gulbarga, is running a dispensary in the mill premises. The staff of this dispensary consisted of a doctor, one compounder and two ayahs.

The Associated Cement Company Ltd., Shahabad, is also running a dispensary in the factory premises. The staff of this dispensary consists of two doctors, three nurses, two compounders and fifteen others.

Ayurvedic and Unani Dispensaries

The indigenous systems of medicine, Ayurveda and Unani, are being practised in the district from a long time and they are also popular among large sections of the population. There were seven Government Ayurvedic Dispensaries, four Government-aided Ayurvedic Dispensaries and seven Government Unani Dispensaries in Gulbarga district in October 1965.

The seven Government Ayurvedic Dispensaries were located at Chinchansur (Aland taluk), Ghangapur (Afzalpur taluk), Madiyal (Aland taluk), Kamalapur (Gulbarga taluk), Nalwar

(Chittapur taluk), Nimbarga (Aland taluk) and Hebbal (Chittapur taluk).

The eight Government Unani Dispensaries were located at Andola (Jevargi taluk), Gogi (Shahapur taluk), Gulbarga, Hiroli (Aland taluk), Kadichoor (Yadgir taluk), Tengali (Chittapur taluk), Sulepet (Chincholi taluk) and Udchan (Afzalpur taluk).

Third Plan Programme

A sum of Rs. 50,000 had been sanctioned for the purchase of equipments to the District Hospital, Gulbarga. It was also proposed to construct a ward of eight beds at the District Hospital at a cost of Rs. 20,000. The V.D. clinic, the T.B. clinic and the Domiciliary centre, started during the Second Five-Year Plan period, continued to function during the Third Five-Year Plan period and Rs. 0.70 lakh had been provided for meeting the expenditure in this regard. Two new Ayurvedic dispensaries were opened at a cost of Rs. 0.24 lakh. One of them was started at Hebbal in August 1961. The other Ayurvedic dispensary was opened at Kodli in January 1965. The latter dispensary was functioning under the control of the Taluk Development Board of Chincholi. Twentytwo health units were sanctioned for the district, each serving a population of 15,000 or more. The expenditure on this account was expected to be Rs. 10.46 lakhs. The three health units at Mahagaon, Konhal and Mudhol in the Stage II Blocks of Gulbarga and Yadgir and Stage I Block of Seram were continued. A provision of Rs. 1.07 lakhs had been made for each of the three health units. The leprosy centre at Gulbarga was also continued and a sum of Rs. 1.50 lakhs was provided in this connection.

In accordance with the re-organised scheme of family planning, there was one urban family planning centre in Gulbarga city and seventeen rural family planning centres in the district. A District Family Planning Committee has been established. A provision of Rs. 0.10 lakh was made in this connection. A regional mobile vasectomy unit was started in 1962 and it formed a part of the District Family Planning Bureau. All the taluk boards have resolved to take up measures in connection with the construction of drinking water wells, conversion of step wells into draw wells—a measure to combat guinea worm—and establishment of new Ayurvedic and Local Fund Dispensaries in the rural areas with a view to increasing medical assistance to the people.

A dental clinic was started in the District Hospital in 1964-65.

Private Medical Practitioners

There were about twenty-six private medical practitioners practising in Gulbarga city in October 1965. Twenty-two of them were allopathic doctors, two were Ayurvedic doctors, one Unani doctor and one Homoeopathic doctor.. Six allopathic

doctors were running private maternity and general nursing homes. There was also a liver diseases dispensary and health centre at Gulbarga.

There is a branch of the Indian Medical Association at Gulbarga. The working committee consists of a president, a vice-president, a secretary, a joint-secretary and a treasurer. There were forty members in the association. The association conducts periodical meetings and arranges lectures by specialists.

Statement showing the Medical Institutions under the control of the District Health Officer, Gulbarga, as in October 1965.

Sl. No.	Location	No. of sanctioned beds M.	W.	C.	No. of Doctors	No. of Nurses	No. of Mid-wives	Daily Average of inpatients	Daily average of out-patients	Expenditure incurred during 1964-65	Remarks
1	2	3			4	5	6	7	8	9	10
	COMBINED DISPENSARIES										
										Rs. P.	
1.	Mahagaon	4	4		1	..	1	..	71.00	10,647 75	
2.	Yadgir	8	8	4	2	..	1	12.22	308.63	17,153 19	
3.	Gurmatkal	3	3		1	..	1	2 0	39 2	9,010 00	
4.	Shahapur	4	4	.	1		1	..	116.9	16,353 00	
5.	Shahabad	2	2	..	1	..	1	1.48	116 9	8,643 69	
6.	Chittapur	2	2	3	1	..	2	0.65	19.24	16,569 81	
7.	Seram	3	3	..	1	..	1	3.8	112 08	12,620 52	
8.	Chincholi	2	2	2	1	..	1	3.5	113.05	18,149 49	
9.	Aland	2	2	2	1	one	2	2 2	132.5	20,733 39	
10.	Shorapur	12	8	4	1	..	1	1.44	78.1	15,791 13	
11.	Afzalpur	2	2	..	1	..	1	2.2	396.0	13,662 00	
12.	Jevargi	4	4	..	1	..	1	2.5	64 3	20,042 01	

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
				PRIMARY HEALTH CENTRES					
13.	Kamalapur	6 to 8 beds	1	One	4	..	84 0	4,180 53	Newly shifted from Mahagaon
14.	Farhatabad	do	1	One	4	..	39 37	37,783 89	
15.	Narona	do	1	One	4	..	38 4	7,544 65	
16.	Madanhipperga	do	1	One	4	..	60.03	7,904 74	
17.	Kondhawaram	do	1	One	4	.	13.05	1,697 12	Newly shifted from Chincholi
18.	Mudhol	do	1	One	4	..	35·0	9,301 50	
19·	Kollur	do	1	One	4	..	42.0	First stage C.D.P.	Expenditure debitable to Community Development Project.
20.	Kalgi	do	1	One	4	..	28 9	do	do
21.	Konkal	do	1	One	4	..	65.82	11,719 71	
22.	Yergil	do	1	One	4	.	40.98	5,172 28	
23.	Doranhalli	do	1	One	4	..	38.87	7,209 90	
24.	Wadgera	do	1	One	4	.	24.5	15,266 52	
25.	Kakkera	do	1	One	4	..	23.2	First stage C D.P.	Expenditure Debitable to Community Development Project.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
26.	Kembhavi	6 to 8 beds	1	One	4		56 5	First stage C.D.P.	Expenditure debitable to Community Development Project.
27.	Nelogi	do	1	One	4	.	27.3	do	do
28.	Yadrami	do	1	One	4		50.1	do	do
29.	Gobbur	do	1	One	4	.	25 7	6,208 47	
				REDUCED--SCALE LOCAL FUND DISPENSARIES					
30.	Mannur	..	1	.	1	..	19.1	3,420 00	
31.	Malkhed	.	1	..	1	..	48.1	3,537 00	

M.W.C.=Men, Women and Children.

Medical Institutions Under the Control of District Surgeon, Gulbarga

Sl. No.	*Name of the Medical Institution and the Place of its location*	*Type and Class*	*Number of sanctioned beds*			*No. of doctors*	*No. of nurses*	*No. of Midwives*	*Daily average No. of in-patients treated*	*Daily average No. of out-patients treated*	*Expenditure incurred on the Institution*
			Men	*Women*	*Children*						
1	2	3		4		5	6	7	8	9	10
1.	District Hospital, Gulbarga. (V.D. Clinic attached)	Allopathic Class I	58	56	12	14	11	2	181.18	1175.58	Rs. 2,35,083
2.	Maternity and Children's Hospital (Zanana Hospital).	do	.	48		1	4	2	25.8	90.6	..
3.	T. B. Clinic	do ..	5	5	..	1	1 (Health Visitor)	..	...	75.72	18,585

Figures of Serial Nos. 1 and 3 relate to 1965, while those of Serial No. 2 relate to 1961.

Indigenous Medical Institutions Under the Control of District Surgeon, Gulbarga, as in October, 1965

Sl. No.	Location	No. of doctors	No. of nurses	Daily average No. of out-patients treated	Expenditure incurred on the Institution during 1964-65
1	2	3	4	5	6
		UNANI DISPENSARIES			Rs.
1.	Gulbarga . ..	One Tabeeb	One	300	13,369
2.	Andola, Jevargi Taluk.	Do	..	85	6,426
3.	Gogi, Shahapur Taluk. .. .	Do	One	120	10,592
4.	Tengali, Chittapur Taluk. .. .	Do	..	80	9,356
5.	Sulepet, Chincholi Taluk.	Do	..	78	6,540
6.	Hiroli, Aland Taluk.	Do	One	60	7,404

1	2	3	4	5	6
7.	Udchan, Afzalpur Taluk.	One Tabeeb	..	69	8,625
8.	Kadichoor, Yadgir Taluk	Do	..	75	8,486
	AYURVEDIC DISPENSARIES				
1.	Kamalapur, Gulbarga Taluk	One Vaidya	..	70	5,493
2.	Ghangapur, Afzalpur Taluk	Do	..	58	4,113
3.	Nimbarga, Aland Taluk	Do	..	65	3,800
4.	Chinchansur, Aland Taluk	Do	..	60	4,121
5.	Nalwar, Chittapur Taluk	Do	..	55	3,907
6.	Madiyal, Aland Taluk	Do	..	50	3,794
7.	Hebbal, Chittapur Taluk	Do	One	65	6,818

CHAPTER XVII

OTHER SOCIAL SERVICES

Labour Welfare

VARIOUS ameliorative measures have been initiated by the Government to make the conditions of the labour population happy and contented. To this end, several Acts have been promulgated relating to working conditions, safety, hygiene, workers' welfare, minimum wages, provision for arbitration of disputes between the workers and the employers, and the like. Among the various labour laws that are in force in the district are :—

(1) Factories Act,
(2) Payment of Wages Act,
(3) Minimum Wages Act,
(4) Workmen's Compensation Act,
(5) Industrial Disputes Act,
(6) Indian Trade Unions Act,
(7) Maternity Benefit Act,
(8) Motor Transport Workers Act,
(9) Working Journalists (Conditions of service and miscellaneous Provisions) Act.
(10) Mysore Shops and Commercial Establishments Act,
(11) Weekly Holidays Act,
(12) Employees' Provident Fund Act,
(13) Indian Boilers Act,
(14) Industrial Employment (Standing Orders) Act
(15) Industrial Establishments (National and Festival Holidays) Act.
(16) Employment of Children Act and
(17) Payment of Bonus Act.

The Commissioner of Labour is also the Chief Conciliation Officer for the State. He is also the Statistics Authority under the Collection of Statistics Act, 1955. The Chief Inspector of Factories and Boilers is the authority for the enforcement of the Factories Act, Payment of Wages Act and the Maternity Benefit Act, and the Commissioner of Labour, for all the other Acts in force, which are administered by the several officers having jurisdiction over the district and notified under the respective enactments. The

Employees' Provident Fund Act is separately administered by the Regional Provident Fund Commissioner.

Administration

The Assistant Commissioner of Labour, Gulbarga Division, comprising Gulbarga, Raichur, Bidar and Bellary districts, is the officer in charge of the Labour Department in Gulbarga district. He is responsible to the Commissioner of Labour in all matters pertaining to the administration of the department in his division. He is also the Conciliation Officer under the Industrial Disputes Act, *ex-officio* Inspector under the Factories Act, and Inspector under the Minimum Wages Act and the Working Journalists (Conditions of service and miscellaneous Provisions) Act. He is assisted in his work by two Labour Officers, one with headquarters at Gulbarga and the other at Raichur.

The Labour Officer, Gulbarga, is the officer in charge of the administration of the department both in Gulbarga and Bidar districts. He works under the supervision and guidance of the Assistant Labour Commissioner, Gulbarga Division, and is responsible to the Commissioner of Labour in all matters pertaining to the administration of the department in Gulbarga district.

The Labour Officer, Gulbarga, has also been notified recently as a Conciliation Officer under the Industrial Disputes Act in respect of establishments employing not more than 200 workers.

Shops and Establishments

The Mysore Shops and Commercial Establishments Act is in force in the district in Gulbarga, Yadgir and Shahabad towns. The Act regulates the working conditions of persons employed in shops and establishments, provides for compulsory weekly holidays, fixed hours of work, and the giving of proper notice of termination and also grant of suitable compensation in cases of wrongful dismissal.

There are two Labour Inspectors in the district with their headquarters at Gulbarga, working under the direct control of the Labour Officer, Gulbarga. It is their duty to see that all the owners of shops and establishments in their jurisdictions adhere strictly to rules and regulations, both under the Mysore Shops and Commercial Establishments Act and the Weekly Holidays Act.

As on the 1st December, 1965, there were 3,253 shops and establishments in the three towns in the district where the Act is in force, in which 2,837 persons were employed. The reason for this small number of employees is due to the fact that most of the shops and establishments are managed by the owners themselves without the assistance of any workers.

Weekly Holidays Act

The Weekly Holidays Act is in force in nine towns of the district, namely, Gulbarga, Yadgir, Shahabad, Seram, Chittapur,

Shorapur, Shahapur, Chincholi and Aland. About 4,780 shops and establishments involving about 5,030 employees came under the purview of the Act during the year 1964-65.

Minimum Wages for Labour

The two Labour Inspectors with headquarters at Gulbarga also enforce the provisions of the Minimum Wages Act and the Rules thereunder. They work under the control of the Labour Officer, Gulbarga. The several industries, which came under the purview of the Act, are mentioned below:—

(1) Agriculture,
(2) Tanneries and leather manufactory,
(3) Tobacco (including Beedi manufactory),
(4) Foundry with or without machine shops,
(5) Tile Industry,
(6) Cotton Ginning and Pressing,
(7) Automobile Engineering including servicing and repairing works,
(8) Cashewnut,
(9) Public Motor Transport,
(10) Oil Mills,
(11) Stone breaking and stone crushing,
(12) Rice, Flour and Dhal Mills, and
(13) Construction of Roads and Buildings.

The Labour Inspectors are expected to see that the minimum rates of wages fixed for labour in respect of each of the scheduled industries mentioned above are strictly adhered to. The Assistant Commissioner of Labour, Gulbarga, and the Labour Officer, Gulbarga, have also been notified as Inspectors of Minimum Wages for enforcing the provisions of the Act more effectively.

Industrial Disputes

The officers in the district, empowered under the Industrial Disputes Act to bring about conciliation in labour disputes, are the Assistant Commissioner of Labour, Gulbarga Division, Gulbarga and the Labour Officer, Gulbarga. They are required to mediate under the law, and if their attempts at conciliation fail, then they report the matter to Government through the Commissioner of Labour. Government then refer the dispute to the Industrial Tribunal.

The Assistant Commissioner of Labour, Gulbarga, is competent to deal with disputes concerning industries employing more than 200 workers, while the Labour Officer can deal with disputes in industries employing 200 or less workers.

The following statement indicates the number of industrial disputes reported and disposed of or settled, during the years 1963-64 and 1964-65 :—

Year	*No. of disputes reported during the year*	*No. of disputes disposed of or settled during the year*
1963-64	34	31
1964-65	12	12

The relationship between the workers and the managements of industrial concerns was generally peaceful and cordial during these years.

Factories and other Establishments.

There is an Inspector of Factories with his head-quarters at Gulbarga to enforce the provisions of the Factories Act, Payment of Wages Act and the Maternity Benefit Act. He is under the administrative control of the Chief Inspector of Factories and Boilers, Bangalore. The Inspector of Factories is required to see that all the factories coming under his jurisdiction follow the statutory obligations imposed under the Act. In cases of infringement, he brings them before a proper Court of Law.

There were 82 factories in Gulbarga district during the year 1964, employing 5,483 workers. The average number of workers in each factory was 67. In addition to these factories, the number of workers employed in the various other establishments in the district, during the year 1964-65, was as indicated below :—

Sl. No.	*Establishment*	*Number*	*Total No. of workers employed*
1.	Commercial Establishments	372	479
2.	Shops	2,510	1,532
3.	Restaurants	358	679
4.	Cinema Theatres	13	147
	Total	3,253	2,837

Strikes and Lock-outs

The following statement indicates the number of strikes, the number of workers involved and the number of man-days lost, during the years 1963-64 and 1964-65, pertaining to the district.

Year	*No. of strikes*	*No. of workers involved*	*No. of man-days lost*
1963-64	7	2,250	2,355
1964-65	4	1,534	16,218

There were no cases of lock-outs in the district, during these years.

Trade Unions

The Trade Unions Act recognises the right of workers to organise themselves into trade unions for purposes of collective bargaining. These unions, when registered, have certain rights and obligations, and are independent bodies. Industrial workers have, therefore, been quick to take advantage of trade union movement in order to further their welfare.

There were sixteen registered trade unions in the district in the year 1959-60. This number increased to nineteen during the year 1960-61, and during the year 1961-62 it was twenty-three. The following registered trade unions were functioning in the district during the year 1964-65 :—

1. Kurukunta and Seram Stone Quarry Labourers' and Employees' Union, Kurukunta, Seram taluk.
2. Shahabad and Marthur Stone Quarry Labourers' and Employees' Union, Shahabad.
3. Shahabad Cement Factory Workers' Union, Shahabad.
4. M. S. K. Mills Workers' Union, Gulbarga.
5. M. S. K. Mills Mazdoor Sabha, Gulbarga.
6. M. S. K. Mills Kamgar Union, Gulbarga.
7. M. S. K Mills Clerks' Union, Gulbarga.
8. Wadi Stone Marketing Co. Ltd. Workers' Union, Rahoon.
9. Municipal Market Merchants' Association, Gulbarga.
10. Gumastha Sangh, Gulbarga.
11. Gulbarga District P.W.D Road Workers' Union, Gulbarga.
12. Gulbarga Beedi Workers' Union, Gulbarga.
13. The Shahabad Stone Workers' Union, Shahabad.
14. A.C.C. Engineering Works Employees' Union, Shahabad.
15. A C C. Engineering Workers' Union, Shahabad.
16. A.C.C. Engineering Works Staff Union, Shahabad.
17. Gumastha Sangh, Gurmatkal.
18. Chittapur Stone-Quarrying Co. Workers' Union, Chittapur.

Other Amenities

A great deal of improvement has been effected in the conditions of the labour population in the district as a result of the helpful measures initiated by the Government as well as by the employers. The Labour Department took keen interest in the socio-economic conditions of the workers and improved them to a great extent with the help and co-operation of the managements. Recreational facilities, such as reading room, library, indoor games and sports were provided by Government in the Labour Welfare Centre, Gulbarga, which was started during the Second Five-Year Plan period. This Welfare Centre is under the administrative control of the Labour Officer, Gulbarga.

The Government have also initiated the following schemes for the benefit of the workers :—

(1) *Banking facilities.*—This scheme was taken up under the Second Five-Year Plan with the object of affording relief to the industrial workers who are in financial distress. Loans are given to the workers at reasonable rates of interest on a co-operative basis. For this purpose, societies have been organised and registered under the Co-operative Societies Act.

(2) *Film Shows.*—The Department has undertaken propaganda work, and film shows are arranged to educate the working classes on the improved methods of increasing productivity in industrial concerns, safety measures, and is also giving them training in their respective industries, to make them more useful. These shows are arranged in large factories and industrial concerns, at public exhibitions.

(3) *Workers' Education Scheme.*—This is a scheme sponsored by the Government of India under the Second Five-Year Plan to educate the workers on their rights and obligations under the various labour laws in force. For this purpose a thirteen-week course of practical instruction in all the relevant subjects is held, the trainees being selected from the labour population on the recommendation of the trade unions. This scheme is being implemented under the guidance of a committee constituted by Government.

Various ameliorative measures have also been brought into force by big establishments like the Associated Cement Company, Shahabad, and the M.S.K. Mills, Gulbarga, for the benefit of the labourers. The Cement Company has provided rent-free quarters, a free primary school, indoor and outdoor games, a cinema theatre, a swimming pool, a co-operative society, a canteen and a hostel for the benefit of the workers. The M.S.K. Mills has provided for its employees housing facilities, indoor and outdoor games, a primary school, a hospital and a reading room and library.

Employees' Provident Fund Scheme

The Employees' Provident Fund Act, 1952, is a Central Act and it was made applicable to a limited number of establishments in the district, in the year 1953. Every employee of an establishment to which the Employees' Provident Fund Scheme applies, is eligible for membership of the fund after completion of one year's continuous service, or 240 days of actual work during a period of twelve months. Contribution at 6¼ or 8 per cent, as the case may be, is deducted by the employers from the basic wages and dearness-*cum*-food allowance of employees who get Rs. 1,000 per mensem or less as basic wages, and who are otherwise eligible for the membership of the scheme. The employees drawing more than Rs. 1,000 per mensem as basic wages are also eligible to become

members of the fund, and those who are already members of the fund can continue to contribute on basic wages over and above Rs. 1,000 per mensem, provided that the employers are agreeable in writing, to pay their (employers') share of provident fund along with the administrative charges on the total contributions in respect of such employees. Under the amended scheme, any employee, who is not eligible to join the scheme, can also be enrolled as a member of the fund on the joint application of the employee and the employer, provided the employer agrees in writing to pay his own share of Provident Fund contributions and administrative charges on the total contribution in respect of such employees. An amount equal to a worker's contribution, *i.e.*, 6¼ or 8 per cent of the basic wages and dearness-*cum*-food allowance is contributed by the employer each month. The monthly collections along with three per cent administrative charges on the total contributions of the employees and the employers are deposited by the employer in the nearest branch of the State Bank of India for being credited to the Employees' Provident Fund account by the 15th of the following month. The expenses of administration and supervision of the fund are met from the administrative and inspection charges.

Provision has also been made under the Employees' Provident Fund Scheme, 1952, for the grant of advances under certain conditions to the members for (i) financing life insurance policies, (ii) construction and purchase of houses and sites, (iii) defraying medical expenses and (iv) for purchasing shares in Consumers' Co-operative Societies, from their share of contributions to the fund.

A sum of about Rs 60,000 was being realised every month in the district (as on the 1st January 1965) as the total contributions to the fund. Fifty per cent of this sum represented the employees' share and the balance, that of the employers.

Twenty-four establishments in the district had been brought under the purview of the scheme, as on the 1st January, 1965. The following list indicates the names of these establishments :—

1. Gulbarga Oil Mills (Narayandas Bros.), Gulbarga.
2. Subhaschandra Oil Mills, Gulbarga.
3. Lingeri Konnappa Ginning, Pressing & Oil Mills, Yadgir.
4. Mahboob Shahi Kalburgi Mills Co., Ltd., Gulbarga.
5. The Associated Cement Co., Ltd., Shahabad.
6. Shankarlal Lahoti Oil Mills, Gulbarga.
7. Office of the Divisional Controller, Mysore State Road Transport Corporation, Station Bazaar, Gulbarga.
8. Shahabad & Marthur Stone Supplying Co., (P) Ltd., Shahabad.

9. Kurukunta & Seram Stones Ltd., Kurukunta.
10. Wadi Stone Marketing Co., (P) Ltd., Wadi Junction.
11. Ramachandra Ramanarayan Oil Mills, Seram.
12. Namdeo Rukmannappa Chincholi Dhal Mills, Gulbarga.
13. Arya Annapurna Boarding, Lodging & Restaurant, Main Road, Gulbarga.
14. Lakshmikant Hotel, Main Bazaar, Gulbarga.
15. Tirandaz Talkies, Gulbarga.
16. Sri Hanuman Rice and Oil Mills, Seram.
17. Messrs. Hanumandas Bhagavandas & Co., Dhal Mill, Gulbarga.
18. Messrs. Chittapur Stone Quarries Co. (P), Ltd., Chittapur.
19. Messrs. Sri Ganesh Trading Co., Seram.
20. Jalejar Oil & Rice Mills, Yadgir.
21. Saidapur Oil Mills, Saidapur.
22. Vijaya Oil Mills, Shahabad.
23. Vittal Trading Co., Gulbarga.
24. Messrs. Jai Hind Oil & Fertilizers Co., Yadgir.

The Employees' State Insurance Scheme came into force in the district in 1964. About 5,000 workers in the district are covered under the scheme.

Prohibition

The Mysore Prohibition Act has not yet been extended to Gulbarga district and the area still remains wet. Several social service organisations, however, are doing propaganda in the district in support of prohibition. Their work is particularly confined to areas where there is a preponderance of labour classes Lectures are arranged during large gatherings like fairs and religious melas to impress upon the audience, the advantages of abstinence from alcoholic drinks.

Advancement of Backward Classes and Tribes

The district comprises ten taluks. The population of the Scheduled Castes and the Scheduled Tribes in the district, according to the 1961 census, was 2,17,878 and 1,352 respectively, as indicated below :—

Sl. No.	*Name of Taluk*	*Population of Scheduled Castes*	*Population of Scheduled Tribes*
1.	Gulbarga	30,966	93
2.	Chittapur	26,146	..
3.	Yadgir	25,505	76
4.	Shahapur	24,653	..
5.	Shorapur	17,479	..
6.	Jevargi	16,232	..
7.	Afzalpur	12,643	14
8.	Aland	29,298	414
9.	Chincholi	17,565	196
10.	Seram	17,391	559
	Total	2,17,878	1,352

In addition to the Scheduled Castes and the Scheduled Tribes, there are Lamanis, Koravas, Pardhis and Waddars who are classified as Denotified Tribes or *vimukta jatis*, residing in the district, besides those coming under the Other Backward Classes.

Persons belonging to the Scheduled Castes, Scheduled Tribes and other Backward Classes in the district are generally under-educated and socially backward. The main occupations of these classes are agriculture, unskilled labour, production of leather goods, carpentry, cattle-rearing and rural crafts. The District Social Welfare Officer has been entrusted with the responsibility of attending to the various problems connected with the work of amelioration of these classes in the district. He is assisted by Social Welfare Inspectors in each taluk of the district, besides other technical staff.

The several ameliorative schemes relating to these classes were brought into force in the district in the year 1952-53. The schemes may be broadly classified into three categories, namely, social, economic and educational. The social activities mainly relate to removal of untouchability and other social disabilities. In the economic sphere, various activities like agricultural development, cottage industries, medical relief, housing and other grant-in-aid works have been taken up. In the field of education, free educational facilities and certain other concessions have been provided.

A brief description of the various ameliorative schemes sponsored in the district for the welfare of these communities during the First and Second Plan periods is given below.

Educational Aid

With a view to providing more educational facilities to the people of the Scheduled Castes, the Social Welfare Department started seven Government Scheduled Caste hostels for boys and two hostels for girls. Provision was made for the admission of 435 students in these hostels every year. Four Scheduled Caste hostels run by voluntary agencies were also given help by sanction of grant-in-aid at the rate of Rs. 15 per inmate per month. A large number of slates, slate pencils and dresses costing Rs. 25,875 were distributed to the children studying in primary schools, and a sum of Rs. 50,000 was sanctioned every year as scholarships to students of middle and higher secondary schools. A college hostel was opened during the year 1960-61 for the students of the Scheduled Castes studying in professional and technical institutions.

A sum of Rs. 47,325 was sanctioned during the Second Five-Year Plan as grant-in-aid to eight Lamani hostels (Lamani Vidyarthi Vasathi Grihas). Six cosmopolitan hostels also received grant-in-aid from the Social Welfare Department at the

rate of Rs. 15 per inmate per month. A sum of Rs. 60,825 was sanctioned as grant-in-aid under "Education" for Other Backward Classes.

Housing Aid

Housing grants were sanctioned under the State sector at Rs. 400 per family to the members of the Scheduled Castes. The following table indicates the amounts sanctioned and the number of houses constructed during the years 1956-57 to 1960-61 in the district.

Year		*Amount sanctioned* Rs. P.	*No. of houses constructed*
1956-57	..	2,080.00	8
1957-58	..	1,38,400.00	463
1958-59	..	87,502.50	255
1959-60	..	1,24,400.00	311
1960-61	..	1,08,000.00	200
Total	..	4,60,382.50	1,237

About 65 acres of land costing about Rs. 28,500 were allotted to the Harijans for building houses during the Second Five-Year Plan period. During the same period, 160 houses were constructed and about 15 acres of land were acquired for housing, for the benefit of the Denotified Tribes, at an expenditure of about Rs. 53,500.

Agricultural and Industrial Aid

A sum of Rs. 50,280 was sanctioned to 554 Scheduled Caste families for the purchase of bullocks, implements, seeds and manure. Two hundred and ninety-nine artisans were sanctioned a subsidy of Rs. 11,392 for the purchase of tools and equipment. to develop crafts. One hundred and twelve persons belonging to the Denotified Tribes were given bullocks costing about Rs. 25,400.

Welfare of women and children

A tailoring centre for the members of the Scheduled Castes was opened at Gulbarga, and each of the trainees was given a sewing machine free of cost. A sum of about Rs. 30,300 was spent towards the running of eight women's welfare centres in the district.

Miscellaneous Schemes

To provide adequate drinking water to the people belonging to the Scheduled Castes, a sum of about Rs. 66,500 was spent for digging new wells and repairing old ones. A sum of about Rs. 50,650 was spent during the Second Five-Year Plan period for the construction of seventeen new community centres.

Centrally Sponsored Schemes

Under the Central sector of the Second Five-Year Plan, the following welfare schemes were implemented in the district, as per details furnished below :—

WELFARE OF SCHEDULED CASTES

Sl. No.	*Scheme*	*Expenditure*
		Rs.
1.	Housing	43,595
2.	Economic Uplift	35,000
3.	Drinking Water Wells	26,443
4.	Roads	46,400
	Total ..	1,51,438

WELFARE OF DENOTIFIED TRIBES

		Rs.
1.	Housing	35,800
2.	Economic Uplift ..	83,700
3.	Communications ..	
4.	Wells ..	
5.	School Buildings ..	
	Total ..	1,19,500

WELFARE OF OTHER BACKWARD CLASSES

		Rs.
1.	Housing	57,000
2.	Agricultural Aid	57,000
3.	Wells ..	57,000
4.	School Buildings ..	
5.	Roads	57,000
	Total ..	2,28,000

WELFARE SCHEMES IMPLEMENTED IN THE DISTRICT DURING THE YEAR 1964-65

Welfare of Scheduled Castes

A sum of Rs. 1,31,068 was spent under the State sector, in connection with the schemes relating to the welfare of the Scheduled Castes in the district, during 1964-65. The important schemes implemented, allotment and the expenditure incurred were as noted below :—

Sl. No.	*Scheme*	*Allotment*	*Expenditure*	*Physical targets achieved*
		Rs.	Rs.	
I.	EDUCATION			
1.	Starting of Women's Welfare Centres.	20,350	17,703	5 centres—250 children benefited.
2.	Continuance of Boys' hostels.	38,907	31,445	5 hostels— 138 boarders.
3.	Continuance of Girls' hostels.	24,138	12,260	3 hostels—27 boarders.
4.	Grant-in-aid to private hostels.	5,000	4,648	5 hostels—38 boarders
II.	ECONOMIC AID			
1.	Aid to Co-operative Societies.	1,500	1,500	3 Societies benefited
2.	Tailoring Units ..	7,940	5,587	1 unit —12 trainees
3.	Tailoring-*cum*-production Centre.	12,000	10,449	1 Centre started
4.	Residential School	9,167	9,167	26 inmates benefited
III.	HEALTH AND HOUSING			
1.	Drinking Water Wells.	18,000	11,099	28 wells repaired
2.	Acquisition of lands	17,918	17,918	31 acres-27 guntas acquired.

Welfare of Denotified Tribes

A sum of Rs. 1,72,529 was allotted to the district, under the State sector, to carry out the several schemes formulated for the advancement of the Denotified Tribes and a sum of Rs. 1,62,198 was spent during the year 1964-65 as per details indicated below :-

Sl. No.	*Scheme*	*Allotment*	*Expenditure*	*Physical Targets achieved*
		Rs.	Rs.	
1.	Residential Schools	9,025	6,934	One school benefited
2.	Equipments to school-going children.	1,400	1,327	235 children benefited
3.	Starting of new hostels—Aid to private hostels.	96,950	96,467	One hostel started and 11 private hostels given aid.
4.	Award of scholarships.	8,000	8,000	158 students benefited
5.	Aid to agriculturists	18,000	15,958	229 families benefited
6.	Housing aid	31,154	27,614	Construction of 128 houses aided; 8 acres 29 guntas of land acquired.
7.	Sinking of wells .	8,000	5,898	5 wells completed

Welfare of other Backward Classes

A sum of Rs. 42,960 was allotted under the State sector for the schemes relating to the welfare of the Other Backward Classes in the district, during the year 1964-65, and a sum of Rs. 42,760 was spent, as indicated below :—

Sl No.	*Scheme*	*Allotment*	*Expenditure*	*Physical Targets achieved*
		Rs.	Rs.	
1	Grant-in-aid to private hostels.	40,560	40,560	11 hostels benefited
2	Award of pre-matric scholarships.	2,400	2,200	34 students benefited
	Total .	42,960	42,760	

Welfare of Nomadic Tribes

A sum of Rs. 3,500 was allotted under the Central sector to carry out the schemes sponsored for the advancement of Nomadic Tribes in the district during the year 1964-65, and a sum of Rs. 3,325 was spent as indicated below :—

Sl. No	*Scheme*	*Allotment*	*Expenditure*	*Physical Targets achieved*
		Rs.	Rs.	
1.	Supply of milch cows.	1,500	1,325	22 families benefited
2.	Housing subsidy .	2,000	2,000	6 houses built
	Total .	3,500	3,325	

Welfare of Denotified Tribes

A sum of Rs. 1,56,475 was allotted to the district under the Central sector to carry out the several schemes sponsored for the advancement of the Denotified Tribes, and a sum of Rs. 1,24,989 was spent during the year 1964-65 for that purpose. The important items of expenditure incurred were as noted below:—

Sl. No.	Schemes	Allotment	Expenditure	Physical Targets achieved
		Rs.	Rs.	
1.	Residential Schools	27,610	24,383	3 schools—75 boarders.
2.	Craft Centre ..	8,035	5,744	22 girls benefited
3.	Supply of bullocks	41,680	41,500	120 families benefited
4.	Supply of seeds and manure.	5,200	5,191	215 persons benefited
5.	Agricultural implements.	5,200	5,100	103 persons benefited
6.	Supply of milch cows.	10,800	10,450	113 persons benefited
7.	Supply of bullocks with carts.	16,800	15,868	38 persons benefited

Welfare of Women and Children of Backward Classes

Under the scheme for the welfare of women belonging to the Backward Classes, eleven women's welfare centres were functioning in the district. They were located at the headquarters of each of the ten taluks, and at Mashal in Afzalpur taluk. Pre-primary education was introduced as one of the activities of these welfare centres. Free mid-day meals and also supply of garments to children between the ages of five and seven years were provided. Craft classes were also conducted for the benefit of women, wherein sewing and cutting and embroidery were taught. Out of a sum of Rs. 24,020 allotted towards these welfare centres during the year 1964-65, a sum of Rs. 19,316 was spent.

Charitable Endowments

The administration of the endowments in the Hyderabad Karnatak districts of Raichur, Gulbarga and Bidar is still governed by the Hyderabad Endowments Regulation of 1939 and the Rules made thereunder. The Endowments Department in Gulbarga district traces its history from the old Ecclesiastical Department of the former Hyderabad State. The Ecclesiastical Department was abolished in the year 1950 when the Constitution came into force and the Endowments Department was created in its place with a Director of Endowments as its head. The Department was then a part of the Board of Revenue of the Hyderabad State.

The Commissioner for Religious and Charitable Endowments, Bangalore, is also functioning now as the Nazim-e-wakf, exercising the powers of the Member, Board of Revenue and Director of

Endowments, under the Endowments Regulations and the Rules thereunder.

The Deputy Commissioner is the Officer in charge of endowments in the district and at the taluk level, the Tahsildar is the officer who attends to this work. Besides, there is an Endowment Assistant to the Deputy Commissioner to assist him in the administration of the Department in the district. He is responsible to the Commissioner for Religious and Charitable Endowments under rule 230 of the Hyderabad Endowments Act and is directly responsible to the Deputy Commissioner in the day-to-day work pertaining to the department.

Registration of Institutions

According to the Hyderabad Endowments Regulations, the registration of all endowed institutions and their property in the book of endowments is compulsory. The Tahsildar is the registering officer under these Regulations. Out of a total of 4,597 religious and charitable institutions in the district, only 2,608 institutions had been registered upto the end of March 1965. Efforts were being made to register the remaining institutions also, as this was necessary to safeguard the properties attached to them

Preparation of Budgets

Every institution whose annual income exceeds Rs. 50 should have a budget duly sanctioned by the competent authority as per rules. The main purpose of the preparation of the budgets is to exercise proper check over the expenditure of the institutions, with a view to putting an end to unauthorised expenditure. If the annual income of an endowed institution exceeds a sum of Rs. 1,000 then Government approval has to be obtained for the items of expenditure. The Deputy Commissioner of the district is empowered to sanction expenditure in respect of budgets below Rs. 1,000. The officials of the Endowments Department have to inspect these institutions and check whether daily services and *sevas* are properly conducted and the institutions are kept neat and tidy. During the year 1964-65, budgets were prepared in respect of 200 institutions in the district. The total income and expenditure of these institutions were Rs. 2,06,502, and Rs. 2,00, 259, respectively, during that year

Committees

There are two categories of institutions in the district, one being looked after by the Mutawallis (Trustees) and the other being supervised direct by Government through appointed committees. Temple committees are constituted to manage important institutions. During the year 1964-65, fifty-six committees were functioning in the district. Four institutions in Gulbarga taluk and one in Chittapur taluk were directly under Government management.

Festivals

Twenty-one important festivals are celebrated annually in the district with great pomp and pageantry, of which special mention

has to be made of the jathra of Sri Sharanabasaveshwara and the urs of Khwaja Bande Nawaz. A large number of people both from within and outside the State gather at these festivals.

Dharmadaya Fund

The collection of the Dharmadaya fund and its utilisation for charitable, cultural, educational and religious purposes has the sanction of usage and custom in the district. The agriculturists who come to sell their produce in the regulated markets in the district pay a small subscription of 25 paise for every one hundred rupees worth of grains brought by them. The amount so collected by the Dharmadaya licence-holder is handed over to the committees appointed by the Government under the Endowments Regulations and the rules thereunder. The total amount collected as Dharmadaya in the district in Gulbarga, Shahapur, Shahabad Seram, Yadgir and Saidapur, during 1964-65, was Rs. 88,825.

Muslim Endowments

Formerly, Muslim endowments in the district were under the administrative supervision of the Government. Since 1955, however, the supervision and management of these endowments have been transferred to the Wakf Board appointed under the provision of the Central Wakf Act, 1955, together with a complete list of surveyed institutions and the finances available with the Government to the credit of each such institution. In view of the re-organisation of the States, the Hyderabad Board of Wakfs set up two committees to administer the wakfs in the Marathwada and Karnataka regions which were being transferred to the successor States of Bombay and Mysore. The headquarters of the committee in the Karnataka region was located in Gulbarga. This Committee which is even now functioning is responsible for the administration of wakfs in Gulbarga, Raichur and Bidar districts. It has an administrative set-up at Gulbarga where there is a central office with a secretary in charge. There are inspecting officers also for each of these three districts to supervise the management of these institutions. Although details regarding the wakf properties in Gulbarga district are not available, it is reported by the Commissioner for Religious and Charitable Endowments that the income from these properties is quite substantial.

CHAPTER XVIII

PUBLIC LIFE AND VOLUNTARY SOCIAL SERVICE ORGANISATIONS

Representation in State and Union Legislatures

IN accordance with the Delimitation of Parliamentary and Assembly Constituencies Order, 1956, Gulbarga district (excluding Shorapur and Shahapur taluks and Yadgir circle in Yadgir taluk), along with Bidar district, had been formed into a double-member Parliamentary constituency, in which a seat was reserved for the Scheduled Castes. Shorapur and Shahapur taluks and Yadgir circle in Yadgir taluk were included in the Raichur Parliamentary constituency.

The district had been allotted, according to the same order, thirteen seats in the Mysore Legislative Assembly. These seats were distributed in eleven Assembly constituencies, of which two, namely, Aland and Seram, were double-member ones, in each of which a seat had been reserved for the Scheduled Castes.

The following table indicates the names of the constituencies, their extent, the total number of seats allotted and the number reserved for the Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes, in accordance with the Delimitation of Parliamentary and Assembly Constituencies Order, 1956 :—

Name of Constituency	*Extent of Constituency*	*Total No. of seats*	*Seats reserved for*	
			Scheduled Castes	*Scheduled Tribes*
1	2	3	4	5
	LOK SABHA			
Gulbarga	Bidar district and Gulbarga district (excluding Shorapur and Shahapur taluks and Yadgir circle in Yadgir taluk).	2	1	Nil
	LEGISLATIVE ASSEMBLY			
Chincholi	Chincholi taluk	1	Nil	Nil
Aland	Aland taluk and Kamalapur circle in Gulbarga taluk.	2	1	Nil

1	2	3	4	5
Gulbarga	Gulbarga circle (excluding the villages specified in item (1) of the Appendix in Gulbarga Taluk).	1	Nil	Nil
Afzalpur	Afzalpur taluk and Farhatabad circle (excluding the villages specified in item (2) of the Appendix) in Gulbarga Taluk.	1	Nil	Nil
Kalgi	Kalgi circle and such of the villages in Chittapur circle, in Chittapur taluk as are specified in item (3) of the Appendix and such of the villages in Gulbarga and Farhatabad Circles as are specified in items (1) and (2) of the Appendix in Gulbarga taluk.	1	Nil	Nil
Chittapur	Nalwar circle and Chittapur circle (excluding the villages specified in item (3) of the Appendix) in Chittapur taluk.	1	Nil	Nil
Seram	Seram taluk and Yadgir taluk (excluding Yadgir circle).	2	1	Nil
Jevargi	Jevargi taluk ..	1	Nil	Nil
Yadgir	Yadgir circle in Yadgir taluk and Wadgera circle and Dornahalli circle (excluding the villages specified in item (4) of the Appendix) in Shahapur taluk.	1	Nil	Nil
Shahapur	Gogi and Hathigudoor circles and such of the villages in Dornahalli circle as are specified in item (4) of the Appendix in Shahapur taluk; and Kembhavi circle in Shorapur taluk.	1	Nil	Nil
Shorapur	Shorapur taluk (excluding Kembhavi Circle) .	1	Nil	Nil

APPENDIX

ITEM (1)

Villages in Gulbarga circle in Gulbarga taluk included in Kalgi Assembly Constituency—

1. Algoud
2. Harsur
3. Benkatbunur
4. Itga Ahmedabad
5. Kalbenur
6. Bolewad
7. Sannur
8. Srinivas Saradigi
9. Kaji Kotnur
10. Hagarga
11. Bhopaltegnur
12. Kerur
13. Zhapur
14. Kadbur
15. Halsultanpur
16. Tavargeri
17. Injihal (Deserted)

ITEM (2)

Villages in Farhatabad circle in Gulbarga taluk included in Kalgi Assembly Constituency—

1. Kalagnur
2. Bala
3. Khurd
4. Nandur Buzurg
5. Dharmapur
6. Tilgole
7. Krinagi
8. Bolewad
9. Firozabad
10. Nadvinhalli
11. Somnathanhalli
12. Khandal
13. Itga Khandal
14. Kusnur
15. Kotnur Darwesh
16. Sinooru
17. Saradgi (Bhatta)
18. Udnooru
19. Nandikooru
20. Sitnooru
21. Panegaon
22. Sirnooru
23. Farhatabad

ITEM (3)

Villages in Chittapur circle in Chittapur taluk included in Kalgi Assembly Constituency—

1.	Hadnur	14.	Devantegnur
2	Madbol	15.	Martur
3	Sangavi	16.	Katamdevarhalli
4.	Dennur Buzurg	17.	Dandoti
5.	Mupta	18.	Bhagewadi
6.	Gundgurti	19.	Mutga
7	Tonsanhalli	20.	Kaddagi
8.	Malkud	21.	Jewangi
9	Evani	22.	Taranhalli
10.	Belgumpa Buzurg	23.	Tonsanhalli
11	Pet-sirur	24.	Kadehalli
12	Aldihal	25.	Mudbol
13	Mugulnagaon		

ITEM (4)

List of village in Dornahalli circle in Shahapur taluk included in Shahapur Assembly Constituency—

1.	Bevinhalli	5.	Itga
2	Madnal	6.	Sirwal
3.	Iugalgi	7.	Harsgundgi
4	Saladpur	8.	Hebballi

Delimitation of Parliamentary and Assembly Constituencies Order, 1961

According to section 3 of the Two-member Constituencies (Abolition) Act, 1961, the Election Commission were required to divide every two-member constituency (other than a two-member constituency in the State of Gujarat) into two single-member constituencies, delimit their extent and decide in which of them the seat should be reserved for the Scheduled Castes or the Scheduled Tribes, having regard to the fact that all such single-member constituencies should, as far as practicable, be geographically compact areas and the seat should be reserved in the constituency in which there was the greater concentration of population of the Scheduled Castes or the Scheduled Tribes. The Election Commission were further required under section 7 of the said Act to make such further amendments in the Delimitation Orders, as was necessary to carry out these provisions. Accordingly, the Commission took steps to amend and revise the Delimitation of Parliamentary and Assembly Constituencies Order, 1956, and issued the Delimitation of Parliamentary and Assembly Constituencies Order, 1961, on the 7th December 1961.

The following changes were made in the Parliamentary and Assembly constituencies pertaining to the district as a result of the revised order:—

(i) Gulbarga which was formerly a double-member Parliamentary constituency was split up into two single-member constituencies—Gulbarga and Bidar—a seat being reserved for the Scheduled Castes in the latter constituency.

(ii) Aland which was formerly a two-member Assembly constituency was divided into two single-member constituencies, Kamalapur and Aland, and a seat was reserved for the Scheduled Castes in the latter constituency.

(iii) Seram, which was also a double-member Assembly constituency was split up into two single-member constituencies, namely, Seram and Gurmatkal, a seat being reserved for the Scheduled Castes in the former constituency.

The following table indicates the names of the Assembly constituencies and their extent, as contained in the Delimitation of Parliamentary and Assembly Constituencies Order, 1961 :—

Sl. No.	Name of Constituency		Extent of Constituency
1	2		3
1.	Chincholi	.	Chincholi taluk
2.	Kamalapur	..	Narona circle and the villages in Nimbarga circle specified in item (1) of the Appendix in Aland taluk ; and Kamalapur circle in Gulbarga taluk.
3.	Aland (SC)	..	Aland taluk (excluding Narona circle and the villages in Nimbarga circle specified in item (1) of the Appendix).
4.	Gulbarga	..	Gulbarga circle (excluding the villages specified in item (2) of the Appendix) in Gulbarga taluk.
5.	Afzalpur	..	Afzalpur taluk ; and Farhatabad circle (excluding the villages specified in item (3) of the Appendix) in Gulbarga taluk.
6.	Kalgi	..	Kalgi circle and the villages in Chittapur circle specified in item (4) of the Appendix in Chittapur taluk; and the villages in Gulbarga and Farhatabad circles specified in items (2) and (3) of the Appendix in Gulbarga taluk.
7.	Chittapur	..	Nalwar circle and Chittapur circle (excluding the villages specified in item (4) of the Appendix) in Chittapur taluk.
8.	Seram (SC)	..	Seram taluk
9.	Gurmatkal	..	Yadgir taluk (excluding Yadgir circle).
10.	Jevargi	..	Jevargi taluk
11.	Yadgir	..	Yadgir circle in Yadgir taluk ; and Wadgera circle and Dornahalli circle (excluding the villages specified in item (5) of the Appendix) in Shahapur taluk
12.	Shahapur	..	Gogipeth and Hathigudoor circles and the villages in Dornahalli circle specified in item (5) of the Appendix, in Shahapur taluk ; and Kembhavi circle in Shorapur taluk.
13.	Shorapur	..	Shorapur taluk (excluding Kembhavi circle).

APPENDIX

Item (1)

Villages in Nimbarga circle in Aland taluk included in Kamalapur Assembly Constituency

1. Korhalli
2. Dhangapur
3. Bettarga
4. Nimbarga
5. Bomanhalli
6. Vaijapur
7. Alur
8. Suntnoor
9. Gola B. K.
10. Kadganchi
11. Dhuttorgaon
12. Ladchincholi

Item (2)

Villages in Gulbarga circle in Gulbarga taluk included in Kalgi Assembly Constituency

1. Algoud
2. Harsur
3. Benkatbonur
4. Itga Ahmedabad
5. Kalbenur
6. Bolewad
7. Sannur
8. Srinivas Saradigi
9. Kaji Kotnur
10. Hagarga
11. Bhopaltegnur
12. Kerur
13. Zhapur
14. Kadbur
15. Halsultanpur
16. Tavergeri
17. Injihal (deserted)

Item (3)

Villages in Farhatabad circle in Gulbarga taluk included in Kalgi Assembly Constituency

1. Kalagnur
2. Pala
3. Khurd
4. Nandur Buzurg
5. Dharmapur
6. Tilgole
7. Krinagi
8. Bolewad
9. Firozabad
10. Nadvinhalli
11. Somnathanhalli
12. Khandal
13. Itga Khandal
14. Kusnur
15. Kotnur Darwesh
16. Sinooru
17. Saradgi (Bhatta)
18. Udnooru
19. Nandikooru
20. Sitnooru
21. Panogaon
22. Sirnooru
23. Farhatabad

Item (4)

Villages in Chittapur circle in Chittapur taluk included in Kalgi Assembly Constituency

1. Hadnur
2. Madbol
3. Sangavi
4. Bennur Buzurg
5. Mupta
6. Gundgurti
7. Tonsanhalli
8. Malkud
9. Evani
10. Belgumpa Buzurg
11. Petsirur
12. Aldihal
13. Mugulnagaon
14. Devantegnur
15. Martur
16. Katamdevarhalli
17. Dandoti
18. Bhagewadi
19. Mutga
20. Kaddagi
21. Jewangi
22. Taranhalli
23. Tonsanhalli
24. Kadehalli
25. Mudbol

Item (5)

Villages in Dornahalli circle in Shahapur taluk included in Shahapur Assembly Constituency

1. Bevinhalli	5. Itga
2. Madnal	6. Sirwal
3. Ingalgi	7. Haragundgi
4. Saladpur	8. Hobballi

Changes in election procedure

The following are the important changes made in the procedure relating to the conduct of the elections and matters connected therewith :—

(i) Under the law now in force, no minimum qualifying period of residence in a constituency is prescribed for purposes of registration as a voter in that constituency. It is now sufficient for registration purposes if a voter is a resident in the constituency at the time of registration.

(ii) The law has now been amended restricting the number of nomination papers that may be presented by or on behalf of any candidate in any constituency, to four. Previously, there was no such restriction, and any number of nomination papers could be filed by or on behalf of any candidate.

(iii) The whole process of elections has now been amended whereby elections in any constituency can now be completed within a period of twenty days as against a period of thirty days required formerly.

(iv) The introduction of the marking system of voting in all elections has simplified the method of casting the votes and also reduced the cost of the elections to a considerable extent.

(v) Certain changes have now been made in the rules relating to the presentation of election petitions to the Election Commission, calling in question any election in which there is allegation of any corrupt practices having been indulged in. The deposit of security which every petitioner has to make has now been increased from one thousand rupees to two thousand rupees so as to reduce the number of election petitions filed on flimsy grounds.

(vi) Rules have now been framed regarding corrupt practices and electoral offences. Public meetings both on the day preceding the election day and on the election day have been prohibited. Certain restrictions have also been imposed on the printing of pamphlets and posters, either for the purposes of promoting or prejudicing the election of a candidate.

POLITICAL PARTIES

General Elections, 1957

The Indian National Congress, the Praja Socialist Party and the Communist Party were the three political parties which participated in the second general elections held in the district in the year 1957. These political parties were affiliated to the respective all-India bodies and none of them was of local origin.

Of these three recognised political parties, the Indian National Congress had a considerable hold in the district. The party secured ten seats out of the twelve contested by it in all the eleven Assembly constituencies. The party won two seats in Afzalpur and Shahapur constituencies without a contest. It also captured both the Lok Sabha seats. The Praja Socialist Party contested three seats in Aland and Gulbarga constituencies and the Communist Party contested four seats in Gulbarga, Kalgi, Chittapur and Jevargi constituencies. But neither of these parties was successful in securing any seat.

Apart from these political parties, ten Independents contested the Assembly elections from all the constituencies where there was a contest, and they were successful in capturing three seats in Seram, Jevargi and Yadgir constituencies, the reserved seat in Seram being won without a contest.

General Elections, 1962

In addition to the three political parties which contested the general elections of 1957 in the district, three other political parties, namely, the Swatantra, the Socialist and the Republican parties also contested the general elections held in the year 1962. These three parties also had their affiliations with the all-India bodies and none of them was of local origin.

The Indian National Congress continued to be the major political party, although it did not have the same amount of success as in the general elections of 1957. It secured only eight seats out of the thirteen contested by it in all the Assembly constituencies. It also captured the Lok Sabha seat allotted to the district. Apart from the Congress, the Swatantra Party was the only other political party to make an impression in the district. It contested eight Assembly seats and secured three seats in Gurmatkal, Shahapur and Shorapur constituencies, in straight contests with the Congress. The Communist Party contested three seats but was successful only in Gulbarga Assembly constituency. The Praja Socialist, Republican and Socialist parties failed to secure any seat

Only two Independents contested the general elections of 1962 in Kalgi and Yadgir Assembly constituencies, and one of them was successful in the latter constituency.

The following tables show the party affiliations of the contesting candidates, the number of valid votes polled by them, percentage of votes secured, and the successful parties, in respect of the general elections held in the district in 1957 and in 1962.

GENERAL ELECTIONS, 1957.

Sl. No.	*Name of Constituency*	*Party affiliations of contesting candidates*	*No. of valid votes polled*	*Percentage of total*	*Successful party*
1	2	3	4	5	6
		LOK SABHA			
	Gulbarga ..	1. Congress .	1,39,041	26.17	Congress
		2. Do (S.C.) ..	1,34,239	25.27	do (S.C.)
		3. Independent .	1,09,124	20.56	
		4. Do (S.C.) .	88,352	16.64	
		5. P.S.P. .	60,317	11.36	
		ASSEMBLY			
1.	Chincholi ..	1. Congress	9,539	60.25	Congress
		2. Independent	6,291	39.75	
2.	Aland	1. Congress (S.C.)	18,920	29.17	Congress (S.C.)
		2. do	16,393	25.28	do
		3. P.S.P. (S.C.) .	11,911	18.38	
		4. P.S.P.	8,872	13.69	
		5. Independent (S.C.)	8,747	13.48	
3.	Gulbarga	1. Congress	8,864	44.83	Congress
		2. Communist	5,075	25.66	
		3. Independent .	3,563	18.03	
		4. P.S.P.	2,270	11.48	
4.	Afzalpur	Congress	Uncontested	Election	
5.	Kalgi .	1. Congress	9,044	62.96	Congress
		2. Communist	4,030	28.05	
		3. Independent	1,292	8.99	
6.	Chittapur ..	1. Congress	7,018	39.66	Congress
		2. Independent .	5,629	31.83	
		3. Communist	5,045	28.51	
7.	Seram ..	1. Congress ..	20,220	51.86	Congress
		2. Independent	18.768	48.14	
		3. Independent (S.C.)	Uncontested	Election	
8.	Jevargi	1. Independent	7,326	41.71	Independent
		2. Congress .	7,226	41.14	
		3. Communist	3,011	17.15	
9.	Yadgir ..	1. Independent ..	12,600	52.07	Independent
		2. Congress .	11,595	47.93	
10.	Shahapur ..	Congress .	Uncontested	Election	
11.	Shorapur ..	1. Congress ..	15,561	59.40	Congress
		2. Independent .	10,650	40.60	

GENERAL ELECTIONS, 1962

1	2	3		4	5	6
			LOK SABHA			
	Gulbarga ..	1.	Congress ..	92,336	52.29	Congress
		2.	Swatantra ..	84,314	47.71	
			ASSEMBLY			
1.	Chincholi	1.	Congress ..	13,391	58.94	Congress
		2.	Swatantra ..	10,353	41.06	
2.	Kamalapur	1.	Congress	14,484	69.18	Congress
		2.	P. S. P.	3,949	19.38	
		3.	Republican	2,377	11.44	
3.	Aland	1.	Congress ..	11,631	65.33	Congress
		2	P. S. P.	4,141	23.12	
		3.	Republican	2,092	11.55	
4.	Gulbarga ..	1.	Communist	14,208	53.62	Communist
		2.	Congress ..	10,920	41.20	
		3	P. S. P. ..	1,003	3.77	
		4.	Socialist	318	1.41	
5.	Afzalpur .	1.	Congress	14,078	86.38	Congress
		2.	Republican ..	1,411	8.84	
		3.	P. S. P.	782	4.78	
6.	Kalgi ..	1.	Congress ..	10,608	60.62	Congress
		2.	Swatantra ..	3,779	21.60	
		3.	Communist	2,285	13.05	
		4.	Independent	866	4 73	
7.	Chittapur ..	1.	Congress	11,296	53.05	Congress
		2.	Swatantra ..	6,167	28.96	
		3.	Communist ..	3,847	17.99	
8.	Seram .	1.	Congress	10,012	58.94	Congress
		2.	Swatantra	6,981	41.06	
9.	Gurmatkal ..	1	Swatantra	19,377	67.24	Swatantra
		2.	Congress	9,469	32.76	
10.	Jevargi	1.	Congress	12,251	51.25	Congress
		2.	Swatantra	11,695	48.75	
11.	Yadgir	1.	Independent	15,872	53.57	Independent
		2.	Congress	13,788	46.43	
12.	Shahapur ..	1.	Swatantra	11,915	59.55	Swatantra
		2.	Congress	8,094	40.45	
13.	Shorapur .	1.	Swatantra	18,841	73.30	Swatantra
		2.	Congress ..	7,830	26.70	

Voting Statistics 1957—

Lok Sabha.—Gulbarga was a double member Parliamentary Constituency with 7,18,374 voters on the rolls for the Lok Sabha elections of 1957. The total number of valid votes polled was 5,31,073, the percentage of votes polled being 36.30.

Assembly.—The total number of electors in the district for the Assembly elections of 1957 was 5,81,648 and the total number of valid votes polled was 2,39,460. The average percentage of votes polled in a constituency was 38.96. The highest percentage of valid votes polled was 51.94 in Shorapur constituency, while the lowest percentage was 30.87 in Kalgi constituency.

Lok Sabha.—In accordance with the provisions of the Two-member Constituencies (Abolition) Act, 1961, Gulbarga became a single member constituency for the Lok Sabha elections of 1962. The number of electors for the elections was 4,14,676 and the total number of valid votes polled was 1,76,650 in 1962. The percentage of votes polled was 42.59, thus registering an increase of 6.29 per cent over the elections of 1957.

Voting Statistics—1962

Assembly.—The total number of electors in the district for the Assembly elections of 1962 was 6,88,566 and the total number of valid votes polled was 2,90,011, the average percentage of votes polled being 41.90. The highest percentage of valid votes polled in a constituency was 50.89 in Yadgir, while the lowest percentage was 32.63 in Afzalpur.

The following tables indicate the total number of voters, the total number of valid votes polled and the percentage of votes polled in respect of the general elections held in the district in the years 1957 and 1962.

GENERAL ELECTIONS. 1957

Sl. No.	*Name of Constituency*	*No. of Electors*	*Total No. of Votes*	*Total No. of valid votes polled*	*Percentage of Col. 5 to Col. 4*
1	2	3	4	5	6
	LOK SABHA				
	Gulbarga .	7,18,374	14,36,748	5,31,073	36.30
	ASSEMBLY				
1.	Chincholi ..	49,473	49,473	15,830	31.83
2.	Aland ..	84,528	1,69,056	64,843	38.37
3.	Gulbarga	46,860	46,860	19,772	42.20
4.	Afzalpur ..	47,696	Uncontested	Election	
5.	Kalgi ..	46,611	46,611	14,366	30.87
6.	Chittapur ..	49,610	49,610	17,692	35.66
7.	Seram	51,843	1,03,686	38,988	37.60
8.	Jevargi .	47,373	47,373	17,563	37.07
9.	Yadgir ..	53,481	53,481	24,195	45.14
10.	Shahapur ..	53,710	Uncontested	Election	
11.	Shorapur ..	50,463	50,463	26,211	51.94
	Total ..	5,81,648	6,16,613	2,39,460	38.96 (Average)

GENERAL ELECTIONS, 1962

Sl. No.	Name of Constituency		No. of Electors	Total No. of valid votes polled	Percentage of Col. 4 to 3
1	2		3	4	5
			LOK SABHA		
	Gulbarga	..	4,14,076	1,76,650	42.59
			ASSEMBLY		
1.	Chincholi	.	52,980	23,744	44.82
2.	Kamalapur		50,318	20,810	41.35
3.	Aland	.	49,857	17,864	35.83
4.	Gulbarga	.	52,923	26,449	49.98
5.	Afzalpur		49,857	16,271	32.63
6.	Kalgi		49,184	17,538	35.66
7.	Chittapur	.	55,431	21,310	38.44
8.	Seram	..	43,198	16,993	39.35
9.	Gurmatkal	.	60,019	28,846	48.10
10.	Jevargi	.	51,084	23,846	46.67
11.	Yadgir	.	58,260	29,660	50.89
12.	Shahapur	..	58,728	20,009	34.03
13.	Shorapur	.	56,727	26,671	47.01
	Total	.	6.88,566	2,90.011	41.90 (Average)

Polling Stations

There were in all 654 polling stations located in convenient centres in the district, during the second general elections held in 1957. The number of polling stations was increased to 738 during the general elections of 1962 in order to create more facilities for the voters. The following table indicates the number of polling stations located in each of the Assembly constituencies in the district for the general elections of 1962.

Sl. No.	Name of Assembly Constituency	No. of Polling stations
1.	Chincholi	56
2.	Kamalapur	54
3.	Aland	55
4.	Gulbarga	56
5.	Afzalpur	56
6.	Kalgi	54
7.	Chittapur	56
8.	Seram	51
9.	Gurmatkal	66
10.	Jevargi	53
11.	Yadgir	61
12.	Shahapur	63
13.	Shorapur	57
	Total	738

Cost of elections in the District

The total expenditure incurred on the conduct of the third general elections in the district in the year 1962 was about Rs. 1,50,000.

Newspapers and periodicals

Journalism has not made much headway so far in the district though some enthusiastic workers in the field made sporadic attempts to start a few regional language papers. Some weekly papers which made a promising start could not survive for long, owing to financial difficulties and lack of enough number of subscribers. One Kannada daily, by name "Udaya" of Bijapur, has, however, started publication of an edition from Gulbarga also, since the 15th August 1965.

Though the field for journalistic enterprise has not been very encouraging in the district, newspapers published outside the district have a good circulation. Among the Kannada daily papers, which come from outside, the "Samyukta Karnataka" "Vishal Karnataka" and "Vishwavani" of Hubli and "Prajavani" of Bangalore have a good circulation. The Kannada weeklies published in Hubli and Bangalore have also a good appeal. English dailies published in Bangalore, Madras and Bombay have also a fair circulation in the district. They are the "Hindu" from Madras, the "Deccan Herald" from Bangalore, the "Indian Express" and the "Times of India" from Bombay.

Among the Marathi papers "Sakal" from Poona, "Sholapur Samachar" from Sholapur and "Lok Satta" from Bombay, are popular among the Marathi population. Among the papers in Hindi, "Nav Bharat Times" and "Dharmayug" are also popular.

Newspapers from Hyderabad were coming to Gulbarga in large numbers before the reorganisation of the States in 1956. Their circulation has however decreased in the past few years. The Urdu paper "Siyasath" and the monthly "Biswi Sadi", both published in Hyderabad, are popular among the Urdu-knowing population.

Besides the above-mentioned papers and periodicals, film magazines published in Bombay and Madras continue to be popular in all the urban areas of the district.

Voluntary Social Service Organisations

Organised social activities form a particular feature of the non-official endeavours in the district and there are several voluntary service organisations doing good work in catering for the social needs of the people in a variety of ways. They not only complement and supplement the efforts of Government in various fields but also cover avenues of ameliorative service which official agencies alone are unable to fulfil.

The social service organisations in the district can be broadly classified under three heads, namely, (1) orphanages, (2) welfare institutions and (3) institutions for community development, like mahila samajas, youth organisations and the like. Medical

aid, free hostel facilities, Harijan welfare and women's welfare are the important subjects to which attention is being particularly paid by social workers in the district.

The following are some of the important social service organisations in the district whose activities have been described briefly. Although it has not been possible to include every institution functioning in the district, an attempt has been made to include as many of them as possible, details about whose working could be collected.

Sharanabasaveshwar Vidya Vardhaka Sangha

The Sharana Basaveshwar Vidya Vardhaka Sangha, Gulbarga, came into existence about a hundred years ago, due to the untiring efforts and the keen interest taken by Shri Sharana Basaveshwar Maharaj and some of the prominent merchants of Gulbarga. The main objects of the Sangha are to establish schools, colleges and other educational institutions and to afford all the necessary facilities for the improvement of education in the district. It is a purely educational body, non-political in character. In accordance with its avowed objects, the Sangha has established one Arts and Science College, one Commerce College, one high school for boys and a high school for girls. The affairs of the institution were managed during the year 1964-65 by a chairman, a vice-chairman, a secretary, a joint secretary and fifteen other members.

The following table indicates the names of the major institutions together with details of the number of students and teachers attached to each of them as on the 1st March, 1965 :—

Sl. No.	*Name of Institution*	*No. of students*	*No. of teachers*
1.	Arts and Science College ..	800	39
2.	Commerce College .	150	13
3.	Boys' High School ..	1,500	50
4.	Girls' High School ..	430	13

The institution is also maintaining a well-equipped library, containing more than 2,000 books. The library is open to the public. A hostel providing for boarding and lodging facilities to students coming from the rural areas was also started during the year 1963.

Hyderabad Karnatak Education Society

The Hyderabad-Karnatak Education Society, Gulbarga, which has given a considerable fillip to higher education in the district, was formed and registered in the year 1958, with the objective of providing facilities for technical and liberal education in the area. It has hitherto established five colleges. Four of them, *viz.*, an Engineering College, a Medical College, a Law

College and an Arts and Science College for Women are located at Gulbarga, while the fifth, an Arts and Science College, is at Bidar. The following table shows the particulars of the four institutions situated at Gulbarga, as on the 1st December 1965 :—

Sl. No.	*Name of institution*	*Year of establishment*	*No. of teachers*	*No. of students*
1	Engineering College ..	1958	40	428
2	Seth Shankarlal Lahoti Law College ..	1960	6	114
3	Medical College ..	1963	26	110
4	Srimathi Veeramma Gangasiri College for Women	1965	8	36

The Society has constructed spacious buildings for some of its institutions as also a hostel called the Maulana Azad Memorial Hostel which is providing accommodation for about 350 students.

Mahatma Hostel, Kamalapur

The Mahatma Hostel, Kamalapur, was started in July 1950. The main object of the institution is to render necessary facilities to the poor students coming from the rural areas to prosecute their studies. The hostel is getting a grant-in-aid from Government at the rate of Rs. 15 per month per student. There were 66 students in the hostel as on the 1st July 1964. The institution was managed by a committee consisting of a president, a secretary, a treasurer and four other members, as on that date. The hostel is now located in its own building constructed at a cost of about one lakh and six thousand rupees.

Further expansion programmes of the institution include the opening of a separate hostel for girl students.

Lamani Sevak Sangha, Gulbarga

The Lamani Sevak Sangha, Gulbarga, was started in the year 1950 by the efforts of a well-known social worker of Gulbarga. Its objects are:—

(1) to strive for the development and progress of the Lamanis (Lambadas) in the social, educational and economic fields ;

(2) to bring unity among the various sub-sects of the community ;

(3) to assist the Government in the implementation of its ameliorative and welfare schemes relating to the Lambadas; and

(4) to carry on propaganda against the drink evil prevalent in the community.

The working committee of the institution consists of eleven members including a president, a vice-president, a treasurer and a general secretary.

The achievements of the institution up to the year 1965 included the establishment of ten hostels for boys and girls of the community in the district, construction of six community halls and ten school buildings, formation of two housing co-operative societies and the establishment of three tailoring centres and five youth clubs in the Tandas.

Lamani Vidyarthi and Vidyarthini Vasathi Gruhas

The Lamani Vidyarthi and Vidyarthini Vasathi Gruhas, Gulbarga, were started in October 1949 by some prominent citizens of Gulbarga. The main objects of the institutions are to promote community living among the Lamani (Lambada) students and to encourage the spread of education among them. They were managed by a committee of fifteen members including a president, a vice-president, a treasurer and a secretary as on the 1st October, 1965. Funds for running the institutions are secured through donations and subscriptions. Membership fee is also collected at the rate of Rs. 500 from patrons, Rs. 100 from life members and Rs. 12 from ordinary members. The institutions are also getting grants from Government and the State Social Welfare Advisory Board. There were 63 boys in the Vidyarthi Vasathi Gruha and 22 girls in the Vidyarthini Vasathi Gruha, as on the 1st December, 1965. There were ten patrons, five life members and 75 ordinary members on that date. The institutions had helped a large number of boys and girls in prosecuting their secondary and higher education. There are proposals to construct a separate hostel for college students and also to establish a residential school.

Harijan Sevak Sangha, Gulbarga

The only institution of its kind in the district, the Harijan Sevak Sangha, Gulbarga, was established in October 1949. It is affiliated to the All-India Harijan Sevak Sangha, New Delhi. The governing council consists of fifteen persons including a president, a vice-president, a treasurer, a general secretary and a joint secretary. The institution is maintained by donations and subscriptions collected from the public. Its achievements include the establishment of a boys' and a girls' hostels at Gulbarga, formation of model Harijan colonies at Jagat, Brahmapur, Nehruganj and M.S.K. Mills area (all in Gulbarga town), construction of community halls and school buildings and conducting of night schools for adults.

The Sangha is making vigorous efforts for securing better facilities for Harijans and it can be said it has succeeded to a certain extent. It was also responsible in securing house-sites to a number of families who were without houses, and also Government waste lands (in almost all the taluks of the district), to a considerable number of landless people, for cultivation purposes.

The institution has programmed to establish branches of the Sangha in every taluk of the district, for the effective implementation of all its objectives.

Backward Classes Association, Gulbarga

The Backward Classes Association, Gulbarga, is a federal organisation of the backward classes of the Hyderabad Karnatak area. The main object of the Association is to promote the educational, economic and social progress of the backward classes. The main activity of the Association is mostly confined at present, to the running of the Backward Classes Hostel in Gulbarga which was established in August, 1958 at Brahmapur. It was managed during 1964-65 by a committee of eleven persons which included a president, a vice-president, a treasurer, a general secretary and a joint secretary. Free boarding and lodging facilities were provided during that year to 45 students. In addition to subscriptions from about 200 members, donations are also collected from the public for the maintenance of the institution. It has helped a large number of poor students (about 300 up to the end of 1964-65) in obtaining higher education. The Association has formed a society called "Gangamatha House Building Co-operative Society" and has allotted sites to one hundred members for construction of houses in Brahmapur. The lay-out of that colony has been approved by the Town Planning Department. It is also proposed to construct a new hostel building in the colony.

Gandhi Tatwa Prachar Kendra

The Gandhi Smarak Nidhi, Karnataka Shakha, opened a Tatwa Prachar Kendra on the 1st August 1960 at Gulbarga. It is devoted to the work of familiarising the public with the life and teachings of Mahatma Gandhi and impressing upon them the Gandhian approach to the social, cultural and political problems of the day.

The main work of the organisation in the district is propagation of Gandhian principles. There is a library containing about 1,000 books on Gandhian philosophy and Sarvodaya in English, Hindi, Kannada and Marathi. Many of the students, teachers and Government officials freely make use of these books. The Tatwa Pracharak personally contacts individuals in different parts of the city and helps to popularise Gandhian literature. A reading room is also attached to the Kendra where daily papers, weeklies, monthlies and other periodicals are provided for the use of the public. The centre also holds periodical study classes, symposia

and conferences on topics like national integration, language problem, Sarvodaya, religion and philosophy.

There were three Tatwa Prachara sub-centres in the district during the year 1964-65 at Aland, Kamalapur and Yadgir, doing similar work.

Bharat Sevak Samaj, Gulbarga

Another important and active voluntary social service organisation in the district is the branch of the All-India Bharat Sevak Samaj. The various activities of the Samaj organised throughout the district were guided and directed during the year 1964-65 by an executive committee consisting of eleven members including a chairman, a vice-chairman and a secretary. In addition, there were eighteen associate members representing various institutions and organisations. One of the major activities of the Samaj is the holding of social service camps for students, youths and village teachers. Such student camps were held in eight centres in the district, namely, Gulbarga, Afzalpur, Kamalapur, Naganahalli, Jevargi, Hire-Jevargi, Chinnakhan and Udhoor. There was a teachers' training camp in Aland, and twelve rural youth camps during the year 1964-65. Most of these camps were held in National Extension Service blocks and were conducted during the summer and Christmas holidays. The programmes carried out during these camps comprised activities which catered to all the age groups of both the sexes. Among the important items of work turned out during these camps were :—

(1) construction of approach roads,

(2) preparation of play-grounds for schools.

(3) repairs and white-wash to school buildings, and

(4) construction and repairs of wells.

The institution was conducting a tailoring class for women since the year 1959, where they were taught cutting, tailoring and embroidery. Fifty-eight students had completed the course successfully up to the end of December, 1964. It was also running a Panchayati Raj training centre at Gulbarga for the benefit of the office-bearers of Panchayats and members of Taluk Development Boards. About 2,400 persons were trained upto the end of December, 1964.

The Samaj organised two family planning orientation camps during the year 1963-64 at Gulbarga and Afzalpur to propagate the family planning schemes in the district. It has also started a Plan Information Centre with an attached reading room and library for the use of the public.

The institution is also running two "Lok Karya Kshetras" at Gurmatkal and Korhalli (Aland taluk) where efforts are being

made to mobilise man-power for various types of construction works. The workers also engage themselves in imparting social education in the Kshetra villages to make the people plan conscious.

Rotary Club

The Rotary Club, Gulbarga, was started in February 1954. It is essentially a service organisation covering three avenues of service namely, international service, vocational service and community service. It was managed by a Board of nine Directors which included a president, a vice-president and a secretary. There were 29 members on the rolls as on the 1st July 1965, each paying a subscription of Rs. 100 per year. The club is mainly responsible for implementing the urban pilot projects sponsored by the Central Social Welfare Board, under which it is running a nursery school for the children of the slum areas, craft classes for women labourers and a creche for their babies. Books worth Rs. 2,250 had been donated during 1961-62 to the Government Polytechnic Library and a similar donation of books worth about Rs. 3,000 was made to the local Engineering College Library in collaboration with the Students' Aid Society. Books were also donated in July 1965 to the various other colleges in Gulbarga. The institution is awarding two scholarships of Rs. 10 per month to the best boy and the best girl student studying in the X Standard and has also instituted a rolling cup to be awarded to the best institution successful in the annual inter-high school debating competition.

Indian Red Cross Society

The Indian Red Cross Society is a voluntary organisation established by an Act passed by Parliament and having branches in all the States. It is a national institution embodying the ideal of brotherly help and is free from religious, sectarian or political affiliations. Its sole activity is directed towards the improvement of health, prevention of disease and the mitigation of human suffering. It is recognised by the International Committee of the Red Cross at Geneva and is affiliated to the League of Red Cross Societies.

The Red Cross Society at Gulbarga, having jurisdiction over the entire district, was started in the year 1960. The main objects of the society relate to :—

(1) distress relief work,

(2) emergency relief in times of floods, fire, accidents, earthquakes, etc.

(3) maternity and child welfare services, and

(4) development of Junior Red Cross and Ambulance Association work.

The day-to-day administration of the society was carried on during the year 1964-65 by an advisory committee consisting of a chairman, a vice-chairman and a treasurer, assisted by 27 official and non-official members. There were 88 members, 18 life members and 253 associate members of the society as on the 1st January, 1965. One of the many praise-worthy achievements of the institution in Gulbarga was that more than 800 children were getting the benefit of free supply of milk every day.

Lions Club

Another important social service institution in Gulbarga is the Lions Club which was sponsored by its counterpart in Sholapur, and chartered on the 1st December 1963, with an initial membership of 34. The managing committee consisted of a president, three vice-presidents, a secretary, a treasurer, six directors, a tamer and a tail-twister. Among the major activities sponsored by the club, mention may be made of the following :—

(1) Holding elocution competitions among the college students ;

(2) Arranging regular medical check-up of students in convent schools ;

(3) Provision of amenities for children in the children's park, Municipal gardens ;

(4) Free distribution of white canes and clothes to the blind ; and

(5) Arranging anti-polio treatment and triple antigen vaccination for children under ten years of age.

The club is taking measures to establish a Book Bank and also a Blood Bank in Gulbarga.

Bharat Seva Dal

The Bharat Seva Dal is an off-shoot of the Hindustani Seva Dal founded by Dr. N. S. Hardikar in the year 1923. It came into existence in March 1950, as a non-political, non-party youth organisation. The branch of the Seva Dal was started in Gulbarga in July 1962. The objects of the institution are : —

(1) to inculcate in the youth of the country, qualities of self-discipline, self-reliance and service,

(2) to improve the health and physique of the youths, through physical culture and training,

(3) to train the youths for organised and disciplined national service, and

(4) to promote national development and social reconstruction by rendering service to all.

The Seva Dal was managed during the year 1964-65 by a district committee consisting of a chairman and five other members besides a district organiser. Taluk committees have also been formed to look after the work of the organisation at the taluk level.

The Seva Dal at Gulbarga trained, within the course of three months of its inception, about 200 students of middle and higher secondary schools, and these were sent to the students' rally held at Mysore during the Dasara Festival of 1962. Twelve students' units had been organised in the district during the year 1964-65. A teachers' training camp was also held during that year in which twenty-five teachers participated.

Sri Nagareshwara Balavikas Mandir

The Sri Nagareshwara Balavikas Mandir was established in Gulbarga City by the Nagareshwara Welfare Society in August 1961. During the year 1964-65, it was running a nursery class with 35 children on the rolls and also the I, II, III, IV standards of the Primary Section. These classes were under the charge of seven teachers.

It is also running a Sanskrit Pathashala to encourage the study of Sanskrit. There were 35 students in this institution as on the 1st March, 1965.

The managing committee consisted of a chairman, a secretary, a joint secretary and nine other members. The nursery section is provided with toys and other materials worth about Rs. 5,000.

Muslim Orphanage

The Muslim Orphanage, Gulbarga, is one of the oldest service institutions in the district, having been established about 40 years back by some Muslim philanthropists of Gulbarga. About 30 orphans were getting the benefit of free boarding and lodging here during the year 1964-65. The institution is also running an educational and industrial institute where these orphans are given training in various crafts to enable them to lead an independent life later. The orphanage was managed during the year 1964-65 by a committee of eleven members including a president and a secretary. The institution has several immoveable properties in Gulbarga and rent to the extent of about Rs. 400 was being realised every month as on the 1st March, 1965.

Vanitha Vikas Mandal, Gulbarga

The Vanitha Vikas Maṇdal was started at Gulbarga in the year 1948. Its main objects are :—

(1) to set up libraries and reading rooms,

(2) to arrange for training of women in social welfare, social education, music and tailoring, and

(3) to improve the status and the social and economic conditions of women.

The work of the Mandal was managed by a president, a vice-president, a secretary and six other members. There were 60 members during the year 1964-65, each paying a subscription of fifty paise per month. The Mandal is holding classes in music, tailoring, knitting and embroidery for the benefit of the members.

Rampyari Bai Lahoti Balavikas Mandir

The Rampyari Bai Lahoti Balavikas Mandir, Gulbarga, was started in the year 1957 under the auspices of the Vanitha Vikas Mandal, Gulbarga. Its main activity is the running of a nursery school. There were 50 children in the school during the year 1964-65 under the charge of two teachers. The Balavikas Mandir was managed during that year by a committee of five members including a president and a secretary. A new building was constructed to accommodate the nursery section and this was formally opened on 2nd July 1961. The institution is getting an annual grant from the Mysore State Social Welfare Advisory Board.

Mahila Mandal, Afzalpur

The Mahila Mandal, Afzalpur, was started in the year 1960. Its main object is to improve the social and economic conditions of the women of the area. There were 32 members in the institution during the year 1964-65 and it was managed by a committee consisting of a president, a vice-president, and nine other members. The Mandal is running tailoring and Ambar Charkha classes for the benefit of the women of the locality. Fifty women were learning tailoring while 40 were attending the Ambar Charkha classes during the year 1964-65. The sewing machines required were supplied by the Block Development Office.

A new building for the Mandal was under construction. The Mandal is conducting adult education classes and also running women and child welfare centres A Balawadi (Shishu-vihar) was started on 1st September, 1964, with an initial enrolment of thirty children.

It has provided facilities for indoor and outdoor games to its members. It also arranges a number of cultural programmes for the benefit of the public.

Besides the above-mentioned organisations, there are a large number of other voluntary social service institutions in the district such as youth clubs, village mahila institutions, vocational training centres, and adult literacy centres, rendering service to the community in various ways. It is not possible to deal with the activities of each of these institutions separately, on account of their large number and also the absence of particulars about their important activities and achievements.

CHAPTER XIX

PLACES OF INTEREST

THE district of Gulbarga is rich in ancient cultural traditions as also in historical associations. With its ancient capitals, historic battle-fields and architectural monuments, it attracts the attention of any enlightened visitor and takes him back to those days of the glorious past when kingdoms after kingdoms rose, reigned and declined over this ancient land. The district provides many attractions not only to the historian but also to the scholar, pilgrim, archaeologist, geologist and industrialist alike. A brief account of some of the more important places of interest in the district is given in the following pages in an alphabetical order.

Afzalpur

AFZALPUR is the headquarters town of a taluk of the same name, situated to the west of the district headquarters. The town is associated with the name of Afzal Khan, the gallant Bijapur general under Ali Adil Shah II, who perished after his meeting with Shivaji at Pratapgad.

Aland

ALAND is also the headquarters of a taluk of the same name, situated 30 miles north-west of the district headquarters town of Gulbarga. Prior to the integration of jagirs in the former Hyderabad State, the town was administered by *paigah* administrators through an officer known as Duam Talukdar. The place has many historical relics. A stone inscription in Aland speaks of its association with king Tribhuvana Malla Vikramaditya of the 11th century. In the 15th century, a Russian explorer seems to have visited Aland and noted that the place was a centre of 1,000 villages called Aland Sasira. It is also noted as a pilgrim centre for many Hindus. It has the samadhi of an eminent saint, Shri Raghava Chaitanya Maharaj Paratpar Guru. Shri Hastamalakacharya, who was the guru of Shri Shankaracharya, is said to have lived here for some time. Muslims from all over the district congregate at Aland every year to pray at the Dargah of Ladle-Mushaik. Cottage industries have developed considerably in this place in recent years and the handloom sarees of this place are exported to neighbouring States and also abroad.

Aralgundigi

ARALGUNDIGI in Jevargi taluk is the birth-place of Shri Sharanabasaveshwar whose famous shrine is in Gulbarga town.

Chhaya Bhagavathi

CHHAYA BHAGAVATHI is very near Narayanapur on the banks of the Krishna river in Shorapur taluk. The river runs into a fall at this place. A portion of the river runs into a cave and emerges out. A festival is held here on *Vaishakha Shuddha Tadige* when thousands of pilgrims congregate to offer worship to Chhaya Bhagavathi, a wife of the Sun-god.

Chincholi

CHINCHOLI is the headquarters of the taluk of the same name in the north-eastern part of the district. The town is surrounded by hills and the valleys are rich in laterite and black soils. In the rearrangement of boundaries in 1905, Chincholi taluk received a few villages from Kodangal. Once the entire taluk belonged to Nawab Alam Ali Kairoz, a jagirdar. Chincholi town is on the banks of the Mullamari river. There is a fine Dargah here which is visited by a large number of Muslims. There is an imposing building, the Raja's Palace, which is also worth a visit. The Raimanghad temple here attracts a large number of pilgrims.

Devapur

DEVAPUR village in Shorapur taluk is believed to be the birth-place of the great poet Lakshmisha, the author of the famous Jaimini Bharatha. But some other places in the State also lay claim to this honour.

Diggi

DIGGI, situated on the outskirts of Shahapur town, is noted for its Sangamnath temple where a big jatra takes place about August every year. The nearest railway station to reach the place is Yadgir.

Ghangapur

GHANGAPUR is a pilgrim centre in Afzalpur taluk, 10 miles south of Ghangapur railway station on the Madras-Bombay broad gauge railway route. It is highly venerated by the Hindus of both Mysore and Maharashtra States. The sacred temple of Shri Narasimha Saraswathi Datta Maharaj is situated here. Pilgrims visit Ghangapur throughout the year to worship at the temple and also to take holy bath at the confluence of the river Amerja and Bhima There are two large Dharmashalas for the use of pilgrims. It is estimated that on an average 200 pilgrims visit this place daily to worship the Dattatraya Paduka. About the month of February, a big jatra is held at this place at which 60 to 70 thousand pilgrims congregate. Government road transport buses are run from Ghangapur railway station to this place every day. For the pilgrims, this place is known as Deval Ghangapur.

Gogi

GOGI is about seven miles from Shahapur. It contains a big masjid and several tombs dating back to the Adil Shahi rule. Every year in the month of Shaban, an urus takes place here when nearly three thousand pilgrims attend from most of the

surrounding places. The nearest railway station is Yadgir and a bus runs from this place to Gogi.

GULBARGA CITY is the headquarters of the Gulbarga district, and also of the division. It is a rapidly growing town and is situated on the Madras-Bombay broad gauge railway line. The shortest distance from Bangalore to Gulbarga is 363 miles. According to the census of 1961, the town had a population of 97,069 and an area of about ten square miles. **Gulbarga**

Gulbarga town assumed great prominence during the Bahmani period. During the reign of Muhammad-Bin-Tughlaq, a revolt occurred in 1345 A.D. and two years later, one *amir* named Hasan Gangu ascended the throne of Daulatabad bearing the title. Muzaffar Ala-ud-din Bahman Shah. The dynasty he founded became noteworthy in the Deccan history as the Bahmani dynasty and this dynasty ruled the Deccan for nearly two hundred years. Soon after the Bahmani dynasty was founded in Daulatabad, the ruler selected Gulbarga as his capital city. The title Bahman Shah, by which name the founder of the dynasty was called, is mentioned in a Gulbarga mosque inscription and also found on the coins of the Bahmani dynasty. This title is said to have been assumed by Ala-ud-din in deference to the memory of Gangu, a Brahmin patron of his. But another version is that the appellation is traceable to a half-mythical figure of Persia, called Bahman, who was supposed to be the originator of the family. Gulbarga remained the capital till about 1424, when during the reign of Ahmad Shah (1422-1436), the capital was shifted to Bidar. Before Gulbarga was chosen as the Bahmani capital, it was an old provincial town. Bahman Shah built the city tastefully with palaces, mosques, bazaars and other public buildings. At the time the capital was founded, it was centrally situated commanding its Kannada, Marathi and Telugu areas effectively. This ancient city has indeed a long and glorious history. It was a Hindu city of considerable importance and, before the Muhammadan conquest, formed part of the dominions of the Warangal Rajas. Warangal, Gulbarga and Bidar were successively captured by Muhammad-bin-Tughlaq early in the 14th century. Gulbarga lost much of its importance after Ahmad Shah transferred the capital to Bidar. In 1504, the city was occupied by the Bijapur troops and though recovered by Amir Barid in 1514, it was again occupied by the Bijapur troops and remained in the possession of the Adil Shahi kings until the Mughul invasion of the Deccan. From about this time, Gulbarga formed part of the Deccan possession of the Mughal rulers and later it became a part of the Nizam's Dominions.

The city is located on an undulating plain, presenting a vast expanse of rich black cotton soil. The city was made the headquarters of the district in 1873.

The fort at Gulbarga, originally built by Raja Gulchand and afterwards strengthened by Ala-ud-din Bahmani, is a fine work, containing 15 towers and 26 guns, one of which is 25 feet long. Within the ramparts of the fort, is situated a mosque 216 feet by 176 feet resembling the great mosque of Cordova in Spain. This is the only one of its kind in India. Towards the east of the city, there are many tombs of the Bahmani Sultans; these are huge square buildings with large domes. The tomb of Khwaja Bande Nawaz is venerated by both Muslims and Hindus; an urus attended by about a lakh of people takes place every year on 15th Zikhaida. No definite date can be mentioned of this urus in the English calendar since it varies by about eight to ten days every year. While the arches of the Dargah are considered a speciality of the Bahmani architecture, the paintings on the walls and domes are in the Turkish and Iranian styles. Some of the old relics of the saint are still preserved in the tomb along with some specimen art pieces of those days. There is also a library in the premises of the Dargah containing about 10,000 books in Urdu, Persian and Arabic on history, philosophy, religion and other subjects.

Near this tomb, a mosque, a sarai and a college were located by Emperor Aurangzeb in 1687. Visitors to Gulbarga town do not fail to visit the tomb of Khwaja Bande Nawaz. The Nizams of Hyderabad had made it a particular point to pay annual visits to the Dargah. They used to camp in the Aiwan-e-Shahi building with a large entourage. A vast town of tents used to spring up in Gulbarga during the visit of the Nizams.

Two groups of royal tombs are found in the city, one close to the southern entrance of the Gulbarga fort and the other to the east of the city. These two groups fall into two patterns. There are single tombs—simple square chambers having battlements and corner turrets and roofed by a solitary dome, the whole structure standing on a square plinth. There are the double tombs which can be said to be mere duplications of the single tombs. On a close examination of the structural details, many changes are noticeable from dynasty to dynasty. Sultan Hasan's tomb is typical of the Tughlaq style. Similar is the case of the tombs of Muhammad Shah, Mujahid and Dawood. The tomb of Ghias-ud-din presents a different structural aspect. This was built at the end of the 14th century and in the carvings of the prayer niche attached to the tomb, Hindu craftsmanship is noticeable. The fine mausoleum of Firuz Shah and his family is 153 feet by 76 feet and bears testimony to the growing strength of Hindu influance as well as to the new preference for Persian ornamentation. Muhammad Shah built two mosques in Gulbarga which are objects of interest. The earlier is known as the Shah Bazar Masjid, simple in style, imitating the Tughlaq architecture The other, the celebrated Jami Masjid (1367), lies within the fort walls. The mosque has

stilted domes and narrow entrances typical of the Persian style. The squat arches of its cloisters, appearing for the first time, present a familiar feature of the Deccan type of architecture. The building has four shapely domes at its four corners. A fifth and larger one dominating the whole structure is raised above the prayer chamber.

Within the confines of the city and in close proximity to the Gulbarga talab (tank), the shrine of Shri Sharanabasaveshwara stands prominent. He was an eminent religious teacher and philosopher, who preached religious and social equality, devotion to duty and dignity of labour. This temple is attractive and is a famous pilgrim centre. Commencing from fifth day of Chaitra Bahula of every year, a jatra takes place here for a fortnight and is visited by about a lakh of people. The temple is also visited by the devotees all the year round.

The present city of Gulbarga has about 18,000 houses, mostly built in stone. The civic affairs of the city are managed by the Gulbarga City Municipality consisting of 34 members. The city has about 35 miles of roads.

Though not a major industrial city, it has a number of factories of which the M.S.K. Mills is the biggest. There are several smaller industrial establishments such as dhal factory, saw mill, iron workshop, oil mill and beedi factory.

Of late, pretty building lay-outs are coming up near the Aiwan-e-Shahi bungalow, and also near the Tir Andaz Talkies. The town is full of chawls built of stone and contain numerous dwelling units, the ownership being in one person. The chawls are found more near the Station Bazaar and also round about Jagat. New extensions are being planned on the other side of the railway line.

Of late, Gulbarga has stolen a march over many other district headquarters in the State in point of educational progress. There are several colleges in the city, *viz.*, Government Arts and Science College, Sri Sharanabasaveshwara College of Arts, and Science, Seth Shankarlal Lahoti Law College, Engineering College, Medical College, Sri Sharanabasaveshwara College of Commerce, Government B.Ed. College, Veeramma Gangasiri Women's College, two Teachers' Training Institutes, a Panchayatraj Training Centre, a Government Polytechnic, a Government Junior Technical School, higher secondary schools and high schools for boys and girls.

The principal bazaar of Gulbarga is at a little distance from the railway station and Government transport buses and tongas run from the station area of the old town, through a straight highway. The railway line was laid away from the town with the result

that around the railway station premises, a busy extension has come up with restaurants, shops and godowns. In the vicinity of the Shahapur road, public offices have been constructed, as well as quarters for Government personnel. The law courts, the Divisional Commissioner's Office, the Executive Engineer's office, etc., are all located near the railway station.

Within a mile from the railway station, the Aiwan-e-Shahi bungalow is situated. The building and the vast garden around it are visited by many. The Divisional Commissioner's office is located in this building. The Government Polytechnic, the Engineering College and the hostels attached to them are very near the railway station.

Nehru Ganj is some two and a half miles from the railway station. This is the principal commercial centre and huge godowns are located in this area. The road leading from Jagat, through the Chowk and then on to Nehru Ganj is full of shops, warehouses and eating establishments. The Gulbarga Central Jail is located on the main bazaar road and this prison house is the oldest in the region.

One of the attractions of the town is the public garden, Mahboob Gulshan, maintained by the municipality, which is situated by the road leading from the railway station to the main bazaar. This garden has fine lawns, good benches to sit upon and attractive walks. During summer months, people of all walks of life frequent the public gardens for fresh air and relaxation.

Close to the railway station, the Central Railway authorities are maintaining a two-suite retiring room. It addition to this, the State Public Works Department has a travellers' bungalow and the district authorities maintain a guest house. There are also some lodging houses.

Gulbarga town was the abode of the famous saint Khwaja Bande Nawaz (1321-1422). He was the disciple of Khwaja Nasir-ud-din of Delhi, popularly known as *Chirag-e-Delhi* (Light of Delhi) and came to Gulbarga to teach and propagate Islamic principles. He was primarily a Persian writer and has left a number of religious works in Persian. But in the Deccan he found his Persian not of much use, for Urdu was more easily understood here. Therefore, he had to learn Urdu to make himself intelligible to the common man. He has left a few treatises in Urdu also which deal with religious subjects. Khwaja Bande Nawaz lives to this day in the memory of the people of the area.

There is a spacious bus stand close to the railway station, from where express and ordinary buses ply to all the taluk headquarters and to other places in and outside the State. The bus terminus

has large waiting rooms, a well-kept restaurant and necessary booking offices. The main post and telegraph office as well as the public call telephone office are very near the bus terminus.

Hagaratgi HAGARATGI is in Shorapur taluk, and is of archaeological interest in that some remains of old Dravidian culture are found. The Archaeological Survey of India have unearthed a number of objects for further study.

Hattikuni HATTIKUNI, a small village situated in the interior of a forest area in Yadgir taluk, has assumed importance because of a project called the Hattikuni Project which is now under way. The project mainly consists of an earthen dam across the Gajarkote branch of the Hattikuni stream. The project site is actually located three miles upstream of the Hattikuni stream near the village of the same name. The site of the project is situated in the interior of the forest area. It is about ten miles from the Yadgir railway station.

Hayyal Buzurg HAYYAL BUZURG is in Shahapur taluk. It is noted for a big temple of Shri Lingeshwar, also called Hayyalappa shrine. About the month of January, a jatra takes place at this place.

Jevargi JEVARGI is the headquarters of the taluk of the same name. Formerly this taluk was called Andola. This is a Jain pilgrimage centre and contains many basties. In the northern part of the town, the Bhima river runs southwards to join the Krishna. The Gulbarga-Bijapur road passes through Jevargi and enters the Sindgi taluk of Bijapur district to the west of the town.

Kakkera KAKKERA, a village in Shorapur taluk, has a shrine of Lord Somnath, which attracts a large number of pilgrims from all over the Karnatak. During the annual jatra, a cattle fair is also held here.

Kalgi KALGI in Chittapur taluk is a Hindu pilgrim centre where a jatra is held about May every year. There are two temples, Kaleshwar temple and Narasimha temple. Throughout the year, pilgrims visit this place to worship the deities. Kalgi has a panchayat and is 20 miles from the Chittapur railway station which is on the Wadi-Secunderabad broad gauge section. Government transport buses run to this place every day from the district headquarters town. Tengali, 13 miles away, is the nearest bus depot from where buses run all over the district.

Kembhavi KEMBHAVI is 15 miles north-west of Shorapur and is noted for its historical relics relating to the Bahmani dynasty. There are a number of tombs here held sacred by Muslims.

Khandala

KHANDALA is eight miles north-west of Aland and contains a shrine associated with the name of Sri Rama. Hindus from different parts of Karnatak visit this place to worship at the temple of Sri Ramalingeshwaraswamy.

Kodekal

KODEKAL is a place of religious importance visited by pilgrims throughout the year. The Shri Channabasaveshwara temple situated in this place attracts a large number of devotees. During the jatra, some four thousand people congregate here. Kodekal is also noted for its Dargah which is venerated by the Hindus also. Kodekal is in the extreme south-west of Gulbarga district and lies some ten miles to the north of the Krishna river, in Shorapur taluk.

Korhalli

KORHALLI, a small village in Aland taluk, has, of late, assumed importance as one of the most progressive villages in the district of Gulbarga. The Panchayat of this village earned the distinction of being the best Village Panchayat in Mysore State during the year 1964-65.

Korwar

KORWAR, a village in Chittapur taluk, is sanctified by the Shri Annaveerabhadra temple, where a jatra and a cattle fair are held about May every year. The nearest bus station is Madbole which is at a distance of six miles.

Madan-Hippargi

MADAN-HIPPARGI is a village situated at the south-west corner of the Aland taluk, at a distance of 18 miles from the taluk headquarters. Madan-Hippargi was adjudged as a model village for the entire district of Gulbarga by the State Government in 1963. The place is well known for its handloom industries. There are a number of weavers in the village who have a Handloom Weavers' Co-operative Society.

Malkhed

MALKHED, known historically as Manyakheta, is now a small village on the banks of the Kagna river in Seram taluk. Malkhed is about 22 miles by road from district headquarters town and is on the Gulbarga-Seram road. The nearest railway station is Malkhed Road, four miles away on the Wadi-Secunderabad broad gauge route of the Central Railway. About eight miles east of Malkhed lies the taluk headquarters town of Seram.

Malkhed was once the flourishing capital of the Rashtrakuta monarchs who held power for over two centuries from A.D. 753. The period of Rashtrakuta ascendancy in the Deccan marked one of the most brilliant periods in Indian history. No other ruling dynasty of the Deccan played such a dominant part in the history of India till the rise of the Marathas in the 17th century. Amoghavarsha who ascended the throne in A.D. 814 developed the city. It lost its importance after the fall of the Rashtrakutas. Once a sprawling city with palaces and gardens, it is now reduced

to the level of an ordinary village with a meagre population. There are remains of old forts. The place is venerated by members of the Madhva faith as it has a samadhi of Tikacharya, the famous commentator of Sri Madhvacharya's works.

Malkhed was also a Jain centre in the past and contains a large number of Jain sculptures and bronzes. The place was intimately connected with the *bhakthi* cult of Sri Madhvacharya. The second great outstanding personality of the Madhva movement, Jayathirtha, resided in Malkhed in the 14th century. He was the disciple of Akshobhya Tirtha who was one of the four disciples of Sri Madhvacharya. Jayathirtha made the old town of Malkhed his centre and acquired great fame as the commentator on the works of the celebrated Madhvacharya. This was the chief cause for the spread of the Madhva sect all over the Hyderabad-Karnatak region. Jayathirtha was a contemporary of Vidyaranya and earned for himself the title of Tikacharya. He also wrote two polemics, the *Pramanapaddhati* and *Vadavalli*. The brindavan of Tikacharya is situated at Malkhed and every year the followers of the Madhva mathas visit the place on the *Punyathithi* day of the saint.

Malkhed is still remembered as the place which produced the greatest *Apabhramsha* poet, Pushpadanta, who wrote *Mahapurana, Jasahara Chariu* and *Nayakumara Chariu*, under the patronage of the Ministers of the Rashtrakuta King, Krishna II and his successor. Pushpadanta carried to perfection the possibilities of *Apabhramsha* as a vehicle of poetry. His charming style and striking figures of speech recall the best traditions of classical Sanskrit poetry.

Masnal

MASNAL is a village in Afzalpur taluk. The saint Shahabuddin's Dargah situated in this place is visited by a large number of Muslims from all over the district. The nearest railway station to this place is Hotgi on the Madras-Bombay broad-gauge route which is 15 miles away.

Nagai

NAGAI is a place of archaeological interest, situated one and a half miles from the Chittapur railway station on the Wadi-Secunderabad section of the Central Railway. In the past it had assumed importance as a seat of learning. From the recorded history, it is evident that the place provided a University type of education for 200 students of Vedas and 50 students of shastras with several teachers for the Vedas and the shastras and one each for other subjects like *nyaya, mimamsa* etc. The total strength of the Ghatika was 257 in all. The institution had adequate provision for clothing and boarding. All the old structures of this place are now in ruins.

Nagai is also noted for its inscriptions, many of which reveal the state of the country in the hoary past. The great minister Kalidasa Dandanatha who adorned the court of Vikramaditya and who was also the promoter of the prosperity of the Chalukya kingdom finds a mention in two of the inscriptions of Nagai (1085 A.D., M.A.R. 1914-15, paras 70-74). Kalidasa Dandanatha is described as possessed of a literary taste, as a great leader of the army, a Brihaspathi in politics, *Garuda* in daring and the like. A study of inscriptions found in Nagai discloses that Kalidasa I was the son of Madhusudana and his son Kalidasa II seems to have successively served Jayasimha II, Someshvara I and Vikramaditya IV in the exalted office of chief minister. Kalidasa I appears to have founded the Agrhara of *Nagavari* (modern Nagai) in the Gulbarga district for 400 Brahmins well versed in the Vedas and obtained a copper grant for it from Jayasimha II. Nagai is described as the capital city of the Eyalu 300 of the Kuntala country. Kalidasa's son apparently beautified the Agrahara by building in it a temple called Kataka-Komalarka in honour of the Trimurtis.

There is a temple in Nagai erected on 61 pillars with nice carvings and built in the Jain style. In front of the temple, a rectangular pillar, seven feet in height, contains an interesting inscription relating to the Chalukyan rule. There are also several old temples at this place. The Yellamma temple is visited by pilgrims from all over the district and also from outside. Marriages are celebrated in the temple as the precincts are expansive and there is adequate supply of water throughout the year.

Nalwar

NALWAR in Chittapur taluk was an urban area according to census details of 1951, but it was placed in the rural category in the 1961 census. The railway station of Nalwar is situated between Wadi Junction and Yadgir on the Madras-Bombay broad gauge route. Commercially, the place has assumed much importance in recent years. The ancient Chandrala Parameshwari temple in Nalwar attracts pilgrims from distant parts of the Mysore State.

Narona

NARONA, which is in Aland taluk, is associated with Sri Rama who in order to wash off his sin after destroying Ravana, it is said, stayed here for some time on his way back to Ayodhya. Hence the village came to be known as Na-Ravana which later became Narona. It is also said that the great sage Agastya was living here. A fine temple dedicated to Kartikaswami attracts thousands of pilgrims. The linga in the temple is associated with Sri Rama's worship. Narona has in all eight "thirthas" highly venerated by the Hindus of the district. The place is midway between Gulbarga and Aland. It has a high school and a health centre.

Padaswali

PADASWALI is ten miles to the west of Aland town. In ancient times, this place was known as Pattashali. A centre of Hindu pilgrimage, the place has a statue of Channakeshavaswamy in black marble. Though small in size, the image is extraordinary, in its beauty. Visitors from all over the Deccan come here to see the lovely image.

Rudrawadi

RUDRAWADI is ten miles to the north of Aland. It has an inscription relating to the reign of Chalukyas. Though sparsely populated, the place has been proclaimed as a model village with a nice community hall, maternity centre, co-operative society, school building, gramasevak's centre and the like. The village has a cowdung gas plant which provides light to the entire village.

Sagar

SAGAR, a village in Shahapur taluk, is noted for its Dargah of the saint Shaik Sufi Sarmast Saheb. A well-attended urus takes place here annually. Sagar is situated at a distance of 25 miles from Yadgir railway station.

Sangam

SANGAM in Yadgir taluk is a holy place where the Bhima river joins the Krishna. It is also called Naragadde. Throughout the year, Hindus from all parts of the country visit the place and take holy bath at the confluence. The Channaveera Basaveshwara fair is held here about the month of February every year. Sangam is very near the Krishna railway station between Raichur and Yadgir on the Madras-Bombay broad gauge route.

Seram

SERAM is the headquarters of the taluk of the same name and lies some 25 miles from Wadi Junction on the Wadi-Secunderabad broad-gauge route. It is located 42 miles south-east of Gulbarga town. At one time, the taluk had 45 jagir villages, but now all the jagirs have been abolished. The town contains many old temples and mosques.. The Jama Masjid constructed in the lintel style is a place to be visited. The Panchalinga temple is another place worth a visit; it has carved pillars presenting an attractive sight. Besides, there are a Jain Mandir, Manikeshwar temple with a *Garudagamba*, Murulinga and other temples.

Shahabad

SHAHABAD is eight miles from Wadi Junction on the Madras-Bombay broad-gauge railway route in Chittapur taluk. It has an elegant masonry enclosure in the centre of the town. This is supposed to be the wall of an old palace. This enclosure has within it a big mosque and a well. The place has come into prominence on account of its big cement factory owned and worked by the Associated Cement Companies, Ltd. There are large deposits of limestone in the taluk. The place is also famous for its laminated limestones known as the Shahabad stones. Shahabad has now become an important industrial area and a large labour population resides here.

Shorapur

SHORAPUR is the headquarters of the taluk of the same name. The nearest railway station is Yadgir which is about 33 miles. It was known in the old days by the name of Surapura. After the advent of Muslim rule, it began to be called as Shorapur. Not only Shorapur is historically famous but it is also a place of some religious importance. It was the capital of a line of rulers whose domain comprised the area which extended from the Bhima river to the Krishna. It became prominent during the first war of independence in 1857, when the Bedar Raja of Shorapur revolted against the British rule. Prior to this, the Bedar Rajas had battled hard against Emperor Aurangzeb. A Hindu shrine in the town dedicated to the god Gopalaswami attracts devotees throughout the year. A big fair is held here during *Gokulashtami*. Col. Meadows Taylor who is the author of several historical novels lived here for some time. The house that he built is called Taylor's Manzil and is visited by a number of people. Soon after the 1857 revolt when order was restored, Shorapur State was made over to the Nizam of Hyderabad.

The town of Shorapur is situated on a high undulating tableland surrounded by hills. The slope of the country around Shorapur is generally from west to east. The total area of the town is three square miles and comprises Shorapur, Rangampeth and Timapur. Shorapur is situated on a ridge, while the other two suburbs are at the foot of the hills. The Krishna river is seven miles to the west of the town. The remains of the palaces of the Rajas are situated in the centre of the town. The town contains many temples, mosques and Ashur-Khanas. This place was once a cantonment for the Nizam's troops. It is centrally located in between Gulbarga, Raichur and Bijapur.

Sonthi

SONTHI, also called Tonchi and Sannathi by the local population, is about 12 miles from the Nalwar railway station on the Raichur-Wadi section of the Central Railway. Except during the festival days when buses run from Nalwar to Sonthi, pilgrims have to reach the place on bullock carts on other days. This place in Chittapur taluk, though a small village, has become renowned for its Chandralamba temple, which is visited by a large number of Hindus. In March-April every year, a *jatra* is held here. The temple faces east and is in circular shape. On either side of the main entrance, there are huge mantaps, beyond which there is a broad open space nearly 30 ft. wide. The *mantaps* are so constructed as to hold some 2,000 pilgrims at a time. In the centre of this enclosure, the *sanctum-sanctorum* of the Goddess is situated, with the main opening facing east. The outer *prakaras* are used by devotees to sing the praise of the presiding deity. It is said on historical authority that the great dynasty of the Western Chalukyas worshipped Chandralamba as their family deity. Even to this day the Goddess is the family deity of several communities in Gulbarga district. In the inner courtyard of this

celebrated temple, there are *Dwadasha lingas*, together with the images of *Mahakali, Mahalakshmi* and *Saraswathi*. In addition to the temple of Chandralamba, pilgrims go to the Sri Markandeya temple, the Marthanda Bhairava Pond and the *samadhi* of Sri Vishwambhara Dikshit.

The sacred Bhima river flows to the south of the Chandralamba temple and adds to the serenity of the place. According to local belief, Chandralamba is none other than Sitadevi, an avatar of Goddess Lakshmi. Sri Shankaracharya, who propagated the philosophy of *advaita*, has placed before the devotees a well-sung praise of the Goddess in the form of *Ashtottara*. Among those, who became bhakthas of the Goddess were Jagannatha Pandit, Mudduranga Guru Pranesha Vitthala of Lingsugur and the Swamiji of Coondapur, and to manage the affairs of this temple, there is an organisation called the Sri Chandralamba Seva Sangha.

Recently, some important ancient Buddhist relics as also inscriptions in Prakrit and Kannada have been discovered at this place.

THINTINI is on the bank of river Krishna in Shorapur taluk. It is held sacred by the Hindus as it contains the famous shrine of Lord Moneshwar. It is also called Monnappaiah Dargah after a Hindu sufi saint who was a Vishwakarma by caste. He was greatly attracted towards the tenets of Islam. His Dargah is visited by both Hindus and Muslims. Thintini is only 12 miles from the taluk headquarters town of Shorapur. A bridge has been constructed across the Krishna river connecting Gulbarga and Raichur districts. The Thintini bridge has facilitated direct traffic from Bidar to Bangalore without the necessity of passing through Andhra Pradesh. **Thintini**

WADI is a big railway junction in Chittapur taluk, 20 miles away from the district headquarters town. Before 1874, Wadi was an inconspicuous village. The place became an important junction after the railway line from Hyderabad was laid. Wadi has a large railway yard and loco-shed. Near the railway station, a township, mostly consisting of railway employees, has come up. A cement factory is being established at this place. **Wadi**

WAGINGERA, popularly known as Wagangeri, is another place of historical importance in Shorapur taluk. It finds its place in the pages of Indian history for the battle which took place between the Raja of Shorapur and Emperor Aurangzeb. Wagingera contains the ruins of a well-constructed fort which at the time of the Rajas was considered to be invincible. **Wagingera**

YADGIR is the headquarters of the sub-division and taluk of the same name, situated on the Madras-Bombay broad guage **Yadgir**

railway line, some 50 miles from the district headquarters town of Gulbarga. Close to the town and towards the east of the railway station, there is a hill well-fortified by the Yadava kings. An inscription found on the Nizam Buruz gives an account of Nizam Ali Khan's visit to the Governor of the place. The town contains a Jama Masjid. Because of its location on the principal railway route and also of its proximity to Wadi Junction, Yadgir has assumed commercial importance with a sizable import and export trade in foodgrains. The river Bhima flows close by. Yadgir is also a religious centre and the famous Mailaralinga temple here attracts a large number of devotees. A jatra is held once in a year

Yergol

YERGOL is a small village in close proximity of Chittapur town. Jayathirtha, known to his followers as Sri Tikacharya, is believed to have written his celebrated *Nyayasudha* at this place.

APPENDIX

SOME PRINCIPAL TABLES

TABLE I

AREA AND POPULATION BY TALUKS

Sl. No.	Taluk	Area: Commissioner for Land Records, Survey and Settlement		Area: Survey of India		Population 1961		
		sq. miles	sq km.	sq. miles	sq. km.	Rural	Urban	Total
1.	Afzalpur	513.9	1,331.0	505.33	1 308 80	90,071	..	90,071
2.	Aland	678.4	1,757.1	673 47	1,744.27	1.42,326	18.009	1,60,335
3.	Chincholi	608 6	1,576.2	536.76	1,390.20	1.01,716	6,047	1,07,763
4.	Chittapur	691.2	1,790.2	689.38	1,785.48	1,42,948	31,828	1,74,776
5.	Gulbarga	663 7	1,719.0	730.23	1.891 28	1,31,704	97,069	2,28,773
6.	Jevargi	746.2	1,932.6	711 81	1.843.58	1,11,212	.	1,11,212
7.	Seram	365 4	946 4	384 37	995.51	82.162	8,527	90,689
8.	Shahapur	627.2	1.624.5	655.45	1,697 60	1.26,325	11,776	1,38,101
9.	Shorapur	711 0	1,841.5	714.89	1,851,55	1,19,895	17,689	1,37,584
10.	Yadgir	665.6	1,723.9	663.87	1,719.41	1,24.077	35,476	1,60,153
	Total	6,271.2	16,242.4	6,265.56	16,227.68	1,173.036	2,26,421	13,99,457

TABLE 2

AREA AND POPULATION BY TOWNS

Sl. No.	Town	Area in sq. miles	Area in sq. km.	Population per sq. mile	Number of occupied residential houses	Population 1961 Persons	Population 1961 Males	Population 1961 Females
1.	Gulbarga	9.00	23.31	10,785	16,847	97,069	51,019	46,050
2	Aland	2.50	6.48	7,204	3,080	18,009	9,065	8.944
3.	Chincholi	0.10	0.26	60,470	1,184	6,047	3,071	2,976
4.	Chittapur	1.30	3.37	8,749	2,276	11,374	5,802	5,572
5.	Shahabad	2.90	7.51	7,053	4,271	20,454	10,302	10,152
6.	Seram . ..	1.70	4.40	5,016	1,621	8,527	4,345	4,182
7.	Shahapur	0.30	0.78	39,253	2,077	11,776	5,823	5,953
8.	Shorapur .. .	3.00	7.77	5,896	2,863	17,689	8,686	9,003
9.	Yadgir . ..	2.00	5.18	12,882	4,872	25,764	12,865	12,899
10.	Gurmatkal	0.20	0.52	48,560	1,688	9,712	4,811	4,901
	Total ..	23.00	59.58	9,844	40,779	226,421	115,789	110,632

TABLE 3

Occupational classification of persons at work (other than cultivation) in Gulbarga District in 1961.

Sl. No.	*Occupations*	*Males*	*Females*	*Total*
1	2	3	4	5
1.	Engineers, Architects and Surveyors	148	..	148
2.	Physicians, Surgeons and Dentists	323	16	339
3.	Nurses, Pharmacists and other Medical and Health Technicians	465	117	582
4.	Teachers	3,111	372	3,483
5.	Jurists	213	..	213
6.	Labour and Social Welfare Workers	107	9	116
7.	Writers, Artists and related workers	276	7	283
8.	Administrators and Executive Officials (Government)	1,162	30	1,192
9.	Clerical workers, Stenographers, Typists, Book-keepers and Cashiers	3,820	85	3,905
10.	Unskilled Office Workers (including Attendants, etc.)	2,647	76	2,723
11.	Working Proprietors—Wholesale and Retail Trade	13,507	2,955	16,462
12.	Working Proprietors, Directors and Managers (construction, manufacturing, recreation, entertainment, catering services, etc.)	1,793	108	1,901
13.	Salesmen, Shop Assistants and related workers.	3,073	423	3,496
14.	Farm Workers (Animals, Birds and Insects-rearing), Gardeners, Tappers, etc.	18,923	1,642	20,565
15.	Electricians and related workers	151	..	151
16.	Miners, Quarrymen and related workers	693	932	1,625

1	2	3	4	5
17.	Workers in Transport and Communications (including railway and road transport, Post and Telegraphs, etc.,)	3,279	69	3,348
18.	Spinners, Weavers, Dyers and related workers ..	10,526	11 951	22,477
19.	Tailors, Cutters and related workers	3,092	873	3,965
20.	Shoe-makers, Shoe-repairers and related workers	1,579	165	1,744
21.	Blacksmiths and related workers	1,585	118	1,703
22.	Jewellers, Goldsmiths and related workers ..	1,398	89	1,487
23.	Tool-makers, Welders, Machinists and related workers	1,051	27	1,078
24.	Carpenters, Cabinet-makers and related workers ..	3,807	49	3,856
25.	Brick-layers, Plasterers, Stone-cutters and other construction workers	5,165	1,533	6,698
26.	Potters, Kilnmen, Ceramic workers, etc.	2,459	618	3,077
27.	Millers, Bakers, Oilseed-pressers, Pounders and related food and beverage workers.	2,153	237	2,390
28.	Tobacco-preparers and Products-makers ..	1,336	2,079	3,415
29.	Craftsmen and Production Process Workers (basket-weavers, tanners, packers, etc.).	2,650	2,326	4,976
30.	Policemen, Guards, Watchmen and related workers	1,686	1	1,687
31.	House-keepers, Cooks, Maids, Waiters and related workers	2,189	621	2,810
32.	Sweepers, Cleaners and Watermen	805	405	1,210
33.	Barbers, Hair-dressers and related workers	1,899	.	1,899
34.	Washermen, Laundrymen, Dhobies, etc. ..	981	1,276	2,257
35.	Labourers not elsewhere classified	29,142	26,210	55,352
36.	Workers not classifiable by occupation	666	197	863

Source : Census of India 1961, Vol. XI, Mysore, Part II-B(ii)—General Economic Tables.

TABLE 4

LIVESTOCK POPULATION IN GULBARGA DISTRICT

A. Cattle and Buffaloes as per Livestock Census, 1961.

Sl. No.	Taluk	Cattle			Buffaloes		
		Male	*Female*	*Total*	*Male*	*Female*	*Total*
1.	Gulbarga	45,716	36,117	81,833	4,189	16,494	20,683
2.	Chittapur ..	46,909	35,648	82,557	4,091	14,636	18,727
3.	Shahapur	33,579	30,198	63,777	4,061	13,644	17,705
4.	Shorapur	38,821	30,617	69,438	3,744	16,746	20,490
5.	Yadgir ..	40,633	28,961	69,594	5,919	12,453	18,372
6.	Aland ..	44,524	31,655	76,179	4,977	17,521	22,498
7.	Chincholi	40,631	31,766	72,397	3,506	11,150	14,656
8.	Seram .	30,162	22,215	52,377	2,680	8,000	10,680
9.	Afzalpur ..	26,090	15,510	41,600	2,644	8,310	10,954
10.	Jevargi ..	29,952	19,168	49,120	2,713	8,204	10,91
	Total ..	3,77,017	2,81,855	6,58,872	38,524	1,27,158	1,65,682

B. Number of other Livestock as per the Livestock Census of 1961.

Sl. No.	Taluk	Sheep	Goats	Horses and Ponies	Mules	Donkeys	Camels	Pigs
1.	Gulbarga	29,260	22,121	789	14	552	..	986
2.	Chittapur	19,535	24,934	1,297	11	426	24	579
3.	Shahapur	34,102	29,018	1,477	32	581	..	477
4.	Shorapur	37,768	36,724	782	12	388	15	420
5.	Yadgir	60,080	24,398	530	53	813	7	603
6.	Aland	23,262	13,753	893	23	282	9	1,215
7.	Chincholi	16,922	19,361	829	9	456	.	596
8.	Seram	16,375	14,334	632	..	667	..	10
9.	Afzalpur	19,692	15,272	298	..	86	.	752
10.	Jevargi ..	22,195	16,753	2,089	27	251	13	1,263
	Total ..	2,79,281	2,16,668	9,616	181	4,502	68	6,901

TABLE 4 (*Contd.*)

C. Number of Poultry as per the Livestock Census, 1961

Sl. No.	Taluk	Fowls				Ducks				Others	Total Poultry
		Hens	Cocks	Chicken	Total	Ducks	Drakes	Ducklings	Total		
1.	Gulbarga	18,406	4,927	19,194	42,527	79	85	43	207	11	42,745
2.	Chittapur	17,117	5,679	18,978	41,774	31	46	19	96	73	41,943
3.	Shahapur	15,385	5,189	19,240	39,814	6	6	..	12	..	39,826
4.	Shorapur	16,540	5,232	20,382	42,154	33	105	5	143	24	42,321
5.	Yadgir	17,436	5,317	20,859	43,612	10	24	5	39	14	43,665
6.	Aland	7,810	1,958	9,304	19,072	20	28	37	85	..	19,157
7.	Chincholi	13,699	5,419	17,817	36,935	12	3	2	17	66	37,018
8.	Seram	1,589	1,057	1,654	4,300	..	..	..	..	..	4,300
9.	Afzalpur	9,946	2,565	10,975	23,486	..	2	..	2	11	23,499
10.	Jevargi	12,979	4,749	13,280	31,008	35	60	29	124	87	31,219
	Total	1,30,907	42,092	1,51,683	3,24,682	226	359	140	725	286	3,25,693

Metric Weights and Measures

Length—

10	millimetres = 1 centimetre
100	centimetres = 1 metre.
1,000	metres = 1 kilometre.
1,852	metres = 1 nautical mile (international).

Area—

100	square millimetres = 1 square centimetre.
10,000	square centimetres = 1 square metre or centiare.
100	square metres = 1 are.
100	ares = 1 hectare.
100	hectares or 1,000,000 square metres = 1 square kilometre.

Volume—

1,000,000	cubic centimetres = 1 cubic metre.

Capacity—

1,000	millilitres = 1 litre.
1,000	litres = 1 kilolitre.

Weights—

1,000	milligrams = 1 gram.
1,000	grams = 1 kilogram.
100	kilograms = 1 quintal.
1,000	kilograms = 1 tonne.
200	milligrams = 1 carat.

Conversion Factors

Length—

1 inch = 2.54 centimetres

1 foot = 30.48 centimetres

1 yard = 91.44 centimetres

1 mile = 1.61 kilometres

1 nautical mile (UK) = 1853.18 metres

1 nautical mile (international) = 1852 metres

Volume—

1 cubic foot = 0.028 cubic metre

Area—

1 square foot = 0.093 square metre.

1 square yard = 0.836 square metre.

1 square mile = 2.59 square kilometres.

1 acre = 0.405 hectare

Capacity—

1 gallon (Imperial) = 4.55 litres

1 seer (80 tolas) = 0.937 litre

1 Madras measure = 1.77 litres

Temperature—

T° Fahrenheit = 9/5 (T° centigrade) + 32

Monetary Conversion Table

Annas	*Pies*	*Paise*	*Annas*	*Pies*	*Paise*
0	3	2	8	3	52
0	6	3	8	6	53
0	9	5	8	9	55
1	0	6	9	0	56
1	3	8	9	3	58
1	6	9	9	6	59
1	9	11	9	9	61
2	0	12	10	0	6
2	3	14	10	3	64
2	6	16	10	6	66
2	9	17	10	9	67
3	0	19	11	0	69
3	3	20	11	3	70
3	6	22	11	6	72
3	9	23	11	9	73
4	0	25	12	0	75
4	3	27	12	3	77
4	6	28	12	6	78
4	9	30	12	9	80
5	0	31	13	0	81
5	3	33	13	3	83
5	6	34	13	6	84
5	9	36	13	9	86
6	0	37	14	0	87
6	3	39	14	3	89
6	6	41	14	6	91
6	9	42	14	9	92
7	0	44	15	0	94
7	3	45	15	3	95
7	6	47	15	6	97
7	9	48	15	9	98
8	0	50	16	0	100

Re. 1=Annas 16=Paise 100. Pies 12=Anna 1.=Paise 6.

Metric Weights and their nearest equivalents in F.P.S. System and in the District of Gulbarga

Sl. No.	*Weights in Metric System (1 kg. = 1,000 gms.)*		*Equivalents in F.P.S. System*		*Equivalents in the District of Gulbarga*		
	kg	g.	Lbs.	Oz.	Mds.	Srs.	Tolas
1	50	..	110	3 5/8	1	13	44
2	20	..	44	1 1/2	0	21	32
3	10	..	22	3/4	0	10	56
4	5	..	11	3/8	0	5	28
5	2	..	4	6 ½	0	2	9 3/5
6	1	..	2	3 ¼	0	1	4 4/5
7		500	1	1 3/5	0	0	43
8		200	0	7	0	0	17
9		100	0	3 1/2	0	0	8 1/2
10		50	0	1 3/4	0	0	4 1/3
11		20	0	7/10	0	0	1 3/4
12		10	0	7/20	0	0	17/20
13		5	0	7/40	0	0	17/40
14		2	0	7/100	0	0	17/100
15		1	0	7/200	0	0	17/200

Measures which were in use in Gulbarga District and their equivalents

		Seer	*Pav*	*Chatak*	*Seer*	*Millilitre*
2 litres	..	2	..	2	1	934
1 litre	..	1	..	1	1/2	467
500 ml	..	..	2	1/2	1/4	233
200 ml	..	..	..	3 2/5	1/8	117
100 ml	..	..	..	1 7/10	1/16	58
50 ml	..	..	..	17/20	1/32	29
20 ml	..	..	..	17/50		

Denominations of litre measure in use

20 litres	1 litre	50 ml
10 litres	500 ml	20 ml
5 litres	200 ml	
2 litres	100 ml	

Cylindrical type Aluminium, Brass and Stainless Steel pouring and dipping measures for liquids only.

G. I. Conical measures for kerosene and motor oils only.

1 Gallon = 4.55 litres

1 litre = 1,000 millilitres

Weights in existence in Gulbarga District prior to the introduction of Metric Weights, and their equivalents.

Chataks (1 chatak=5 tolas)	Grams (to the nearest gram)	Chataks (1 chatak=5 tolas)	Grams (to the nearest gram)
1	58	9	525
2	117	10	583
3	175	11	642
4	233	12	700
5	292	13	758
6	350	14	816
7	408	15	875
8	467		

Seers (1sr. = 80 tolas).	Kilograms	Grams (to the nearest 10 grams)	Seers (1 sr. = 80 tolas)	Kilograms	Grams (to the nearest 10 grams)
1	2	3	1	2	3
1	..	930	21	19	600
2	1	870	22	20	530
3	2	800	23	21	460
4	3	730	24	22	390
5	4	670	25	23	330
6	5	600	26	24	260
7	6	530	27	25	190
8	7	460	28	26	130
9	8	400	29	27	60
10	9	330	30	27	990
11	10	260	31	28	930
12	11	200	32	29	860
13	12	130	33	30	790
14	13	60	34	31	730
15	14	..	35	32	660
16	14	930	36	33	590
17	15	860	37	34	520
18	16	800	38	35	460
19	17	730	39	36	390
20	18	660			

Maunds (1 maund=40 seers)	Kilograms (to the nearest kilogram)	Maunds (1 maund=40 seers)	Kilograms (to the nearest kilogram)
1	2	1	2
1	37	11	411
2	75	12	448
3	112	13	485
4	149	14	523
5	187	15	560
6	224	16	597
7	261	17	635
8	299	18	672
9	336	19	709
10	373	20	746

Source : Office of the Controller of Weights and Measures, Bangalore

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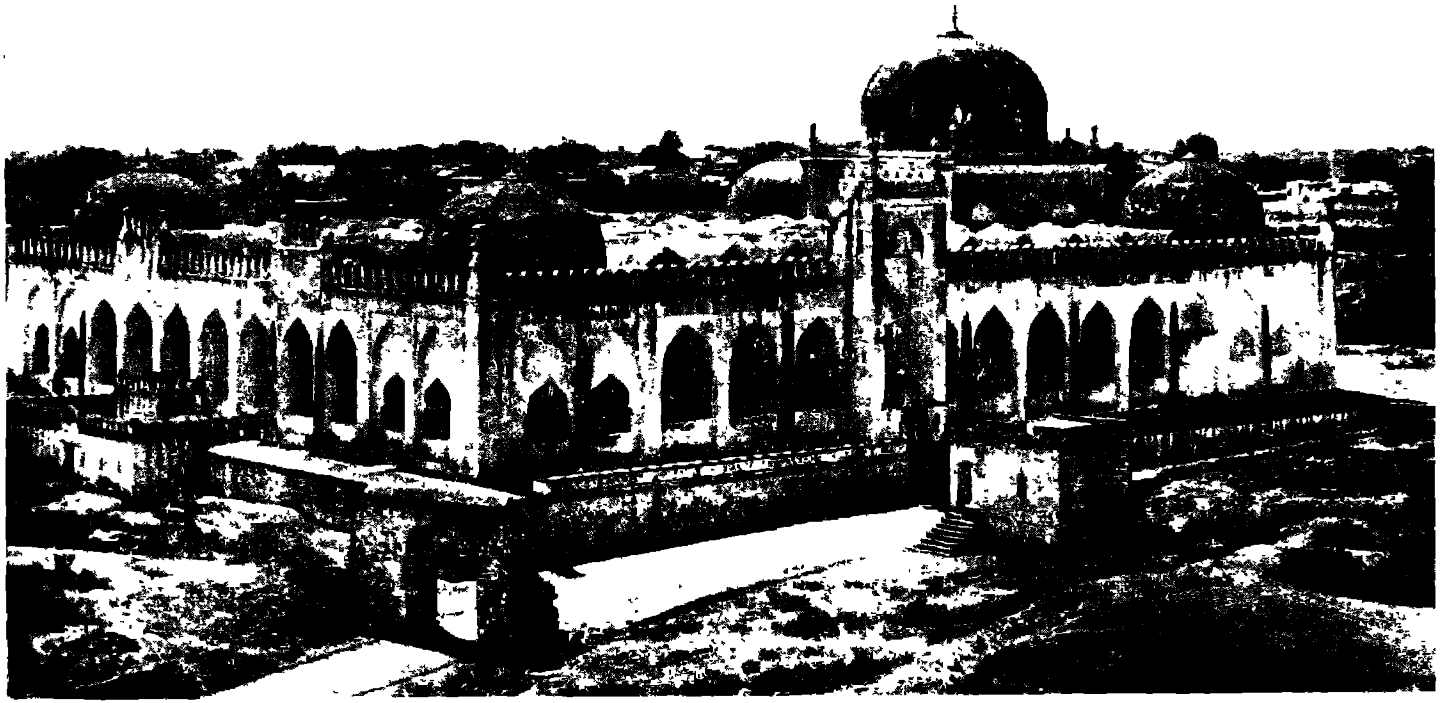
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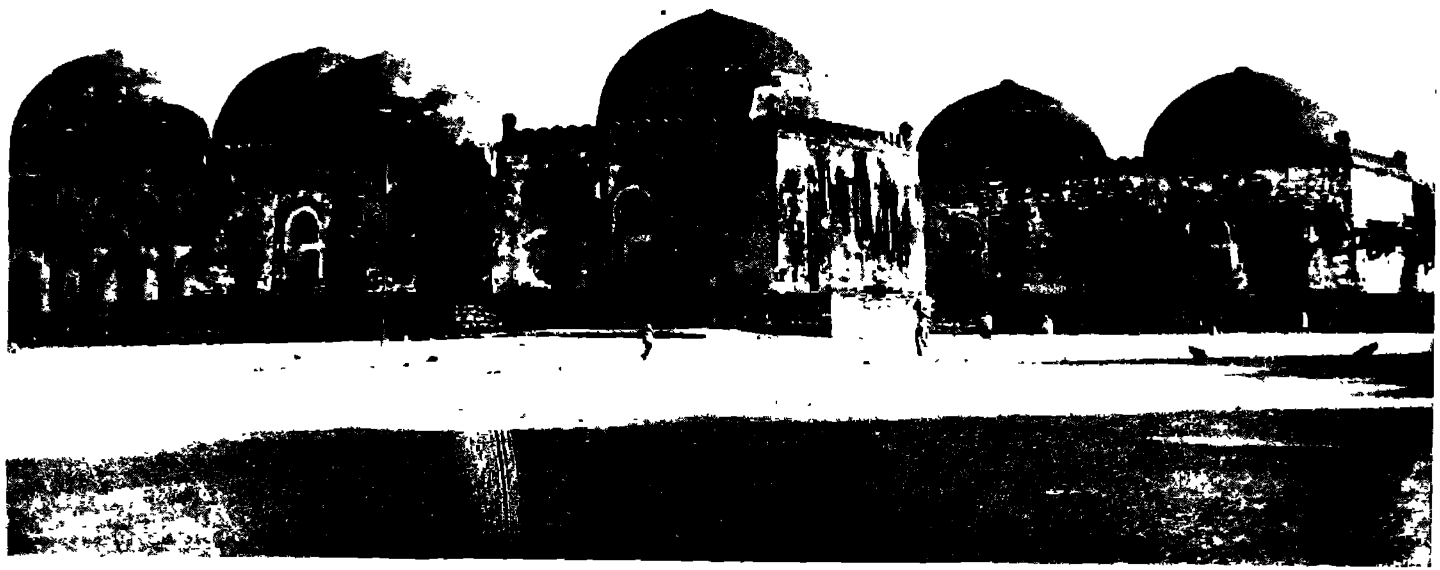
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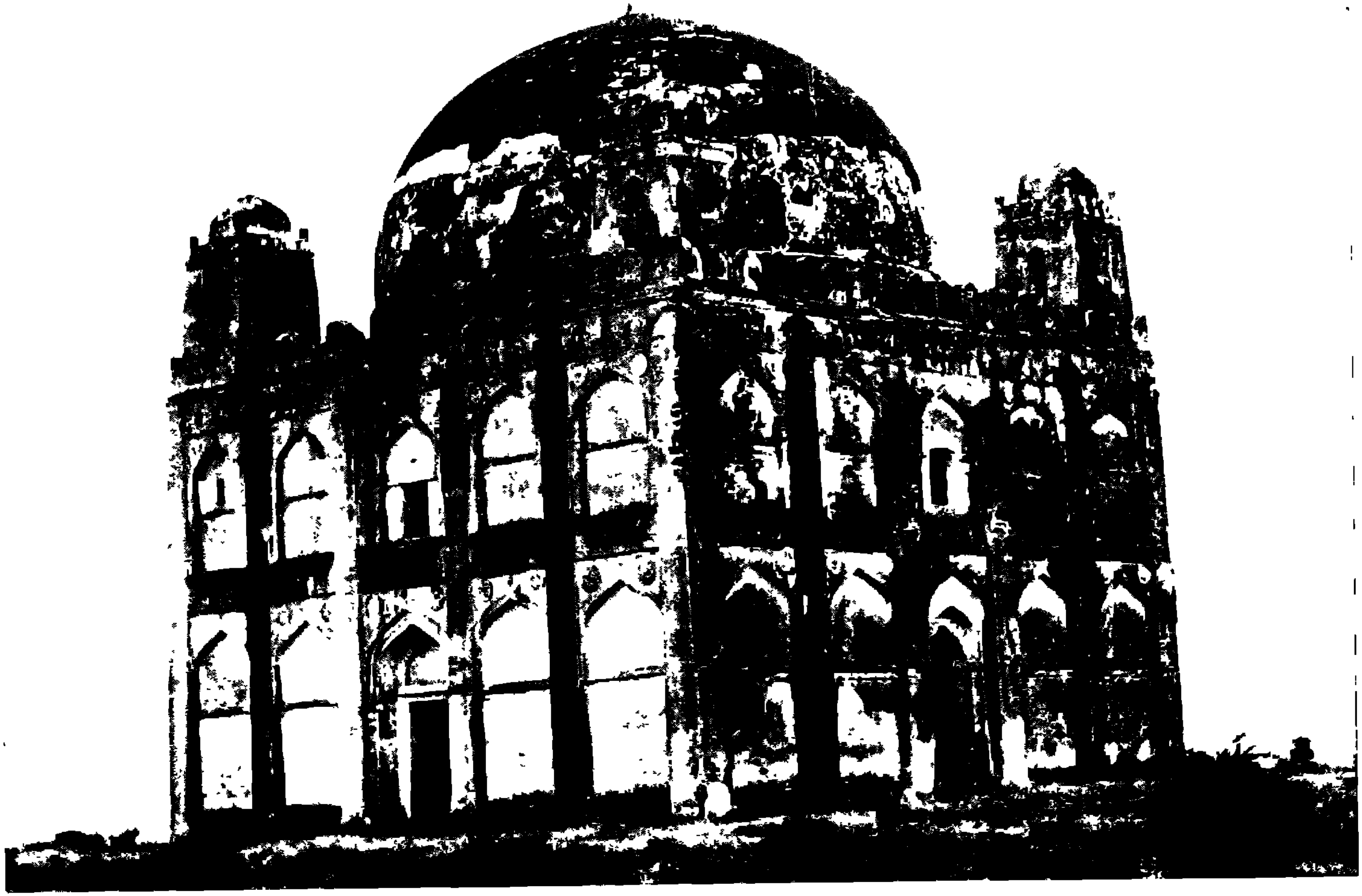
Jami Mosque in the Fort at Gulbarga (*See* pages 61, 462 and 463)



A series of Mausoleums of Bahmani Sultans at Gulbarga. These are collectively known as the Seven Domes.



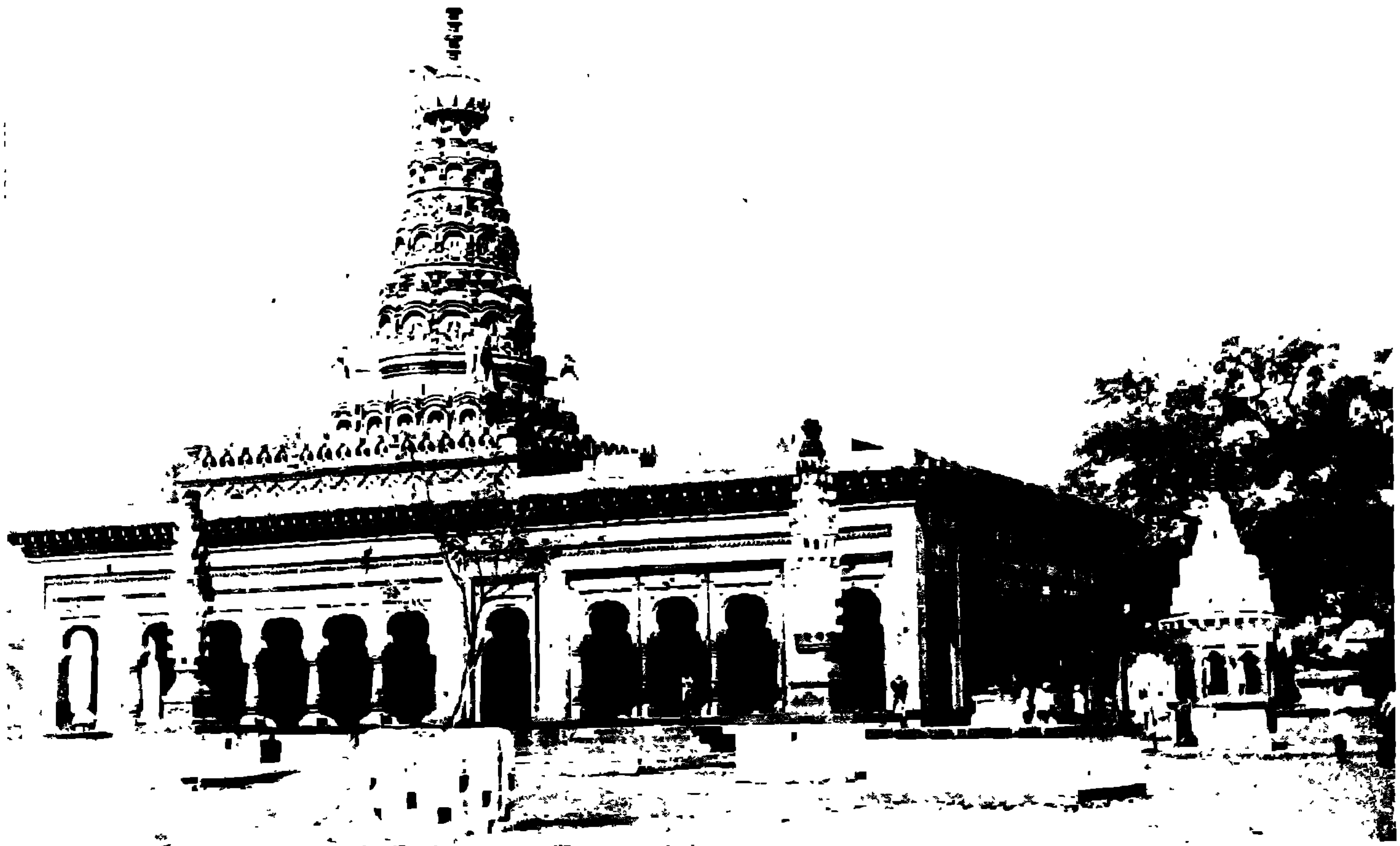
Khwaja Bande Nawaz Dargah, Gulbarga (*See* page 462).



A notable Bahmani Tomb at Gulbarga, popularly called as the "Chor Gumbaz."



Aiwan-e-Shahi Guest House, Gulbarga (*See* pages 218 and 464)



Shri Sharanabasaveshwara Temple, Gulbarga (*See* page 463)

INDEX

PAGE

A

Abdul Khair Khan 289
Abdul Qayum, Mulla 58
Abdur Razzak 1, 130
Absentee Landlordism 299—300

ACTS—

Agricultural Produce (Development of Warehouses) Corporation Act, 1956. 196
Central Wakf Act, 1955 437
Criminal Procedure Code 320—321, 322, 332
Debt Conciliation Act, 1938 170
Employees Provident Fund Act, 1952. 427
Habitual Offenders Act 321
Hindu Marriages Act, 1955 83, 85
Hindu Succession Act, 1956 82
Hyderabad Agricultural Markets Act, 1930. 183, 186, 187, 188, 191, 193
Hyderabad Areas Tenancy (Suspensions of provisions and Amendment) Act, 1957. 308
Hyderabad Asami Shikmis Act, 1945. 303
Hyderabad Compulsory Education Act, 1952. 378—379
Hyderabad Currency Act III of 1912. 183
Hyderabad District Boards Act. 353
Hyderabad District Municipalities Act, 1956. 353
Hyderabad Endowments Regulation. 435, 436, 437
Hyderabad Land Revenue Act, 1907. 288
Hyderabad Land Revenue Amendment Act, 1952. 306
Hyderabad Land Revenue Code. 296, 300
Hyderabad Local Boards Regulation, 1877. 351
Hyderabad Local Boards Regulation, 1899. 351
Hyderabad Money-lenders Act, 1938. 170
Hyderabad Municipal and Town Committees Act. 353
Hyderabad Paper Currency Act, 1917. 184
Hyderabad Prevention of Evictions Ordinance, 1952. 306

PAGE

Hyderabad Record of Rights Regulation, 1358 F. 299
Hyderabad Sanitary Powers Act. 353
Hyderabad Tenancy and Agricultural Land Amendment Act, 1954. 306, 307
Hyderabad Tenancy and Agricultural Lands Act, 1950. 304, 306
Hyderabad Village Panchayat Act. 353
Hyderabad Weights and Measures Act, 1946. 200
Indian Companies Act, 1882. 148
Indian Penal Code 317—318
Indian Registration Act 346
Industrial Disputes Act 424
Jagirs Abolition Regulation, 1949. 290
Jagirs Revenue Recovery Regulation, 1935. 290
Land Acquisition Act, 1894. 279
Local Authorities Loan Act. 353
Local Cess Act, 1900 352
Minimum Wages Act 424
Mysore Agricultural Income-Tax Act, 1957. 311
Mysore Bhoodan Yajna Act, 1963. 310
Mysore Civil Courts Act 331, 332
Mysore Compulsory Primary Education Act, 1961. 379
Mysore Land Reforms Act, 1961 (Mysore Act 10 of 1962). 308—309
Mysore Land Revenue Act, 1964. 296
Mysore Money-lenders Act, 1962. 170
Mysore Municipalities Act, 1964. 354, 367
Mysore Police Act, 1963 (Mysore Act No. 4 of 1964). 322—323
Mysore Sales-Tax Act, 1957. 311
Mysore Shops and Commercial Establishments Act, 1961. 239, 423
Mysore Village Panchayats and Local Boards Act, 1959. 369

	Page
Prevention of Agricultural Land Alienation Act, 1939.	303—304
Probation of Offenders Act, 1958.	341
States' Reorganisation Act, 1956.	10, 59
Suppression of Immoral Traffic in Women and Girls Act.	320
Trade Unions Act	426
Two-member Constituencies (Abolition) Act, 1961.	440, 447
Weekly Holidays Act	239, 423—424
Adalya	187, 188
Addanige	88
Adipurana	397
Aditya I (Chola)	40
Administrative history	2—11
Adwaitha	71
Afforestation	25, 103, 334
Afzal Khan	459
Afzalpur	459
Afzul-ud-dowla	54, 55, 56
Agastya	468
Agates	22—23
Aghornath Chattopadhyaya	58
Agrarian Reforms Committee.	303, 304, 305
Agricultural Demonstration	130
Agricultural Department	337
Agricultural Holdings	96, 254
Agricultural Implements	127—128, 163
Agricultural Implements and Builders' Hardware Industry.	151—152
Agricultural Income-tax Officer.	346, 347
Ahavamalla	44
Ahmad Shah	5, 35, 48, 62, 461
Aiwan-e-Shahi guest house	218, 464
Ajitapurana	397
Akbar	285
Akhilandayya	147
Akshobhyathirtha	397, 467
Alam Ali Kairoz, Nawab	460
Aland	459
Aland Town Municipality	359—361
Ala-ud-din	5, 44

	Page
Ala-ud-din II	48
Ala-ud-din Bahman Shah	1, 5, 35, 45, 51, 461, 462
Ali Adil Shah II	52, 459
Altekar, Dr.	38
Amerja Project	101
Amerja river	15—16
Amoghavarsha I (Nrupatunga).	39—40, 60, 469
Amoghavarsha II	40
Amoghavarsha III	40—41
Anicut works	99
Animal husbandry	131—134, 266—267
Animal Husbandry Department.	338—339
Anjuman-e-Taraqqi-e-Urdu	396
Annawari	291, 292—293
Aralgundigi	460
Archaeological Department	342
ARCHITECTURE—	61—62
—Bahmani	61—62, 462
—Chalukyan	43, 61
—Perso-Deccani	62
Area	2, 11, 91, 475—476
Artisan Training Institutes.	157—158, 267
Arya Samaj	58, 316
Asad Khan Lari	51
Asaf Jah (Nizam-ul-mulk)	6, 53, 206, 287
Asaf Jahi dynasty	53—58
Asami-Shikmis	288
Assembly Constituencies	438—443
Assistant Commissioners	280, 310, 332
Assistant Director of Industries and Commerce.	347—348
Assistant Engineers	335, 336
Assistant Labour Commissioner.	341, 423
Associated Cement Companies.	144, 146, 147, 162, 163, 358, 413, 427
Aurangzeb	6, 52, 462, 470, 471
Automobile workshops	151
Ayurveda	400
Ayurvedic dispensaries	413—414, 421

	Page
B	
Backward Classes Association.	453
Bahadur Khan	52
Bahman Shah	45—46, 62, 461
Bahmanis	5—6, 45—51, 461
Bajra	115, 129, 130
Bande Nawaz Dargah	462
Bande Nawaz Gesu Daraz (Khwaja Syed Mahmud Gesu Daraz).	48, 62, 397, 437, 464
Banking, Indigenous	165—166
Banks, Co-operative	166, 176—177, 255
Banks, Joint Stock	166, 172—174, 255
Bar Associations	333
Barley	115—116
Barrows	36
Basava Samiti	396
Basaveshwara	44, 71, 90, 396
Basic Training School for Women.	386
Bedar Rajas	52—53, 55—56, 74, 470, 471
Bedars	74
Beedi manufacture	156
Belhara (Ballala Raja or Vallabha Raja).	206
Bengal gram	118—119
Bennithora Project	101
Bennithora river	16
Bhadrabahu	60
Bhakti cult	59, 60
Bharat Sevadal	456—457
Bharat Sevak Samaj	370, 454—455
Bharatiya Sangeetha Vidyalaya.	394
Bharucha, S. M.	168
Bhima of Vengi	40
Bhima II of Vengi	40
Bhima river	2, 15
Bhima River Schemes	100—101
Bhois (Bestas)	74
Bhoodan	310—311
Bhutigadeva	42
Bijjala	43, 44
Bilhana	42
Birds	28
Blind Boys, Institute for	394—395
Bori river	17
Boundaries, General	1—2
Brahmins	75
Bridges	207, 225—227
British interventions	53, 54, 55—56
Buddhism	61
Building stones	24
Bukka I	45, 47
Buruds (Miyadars)	75
Butuga	41
C	
Cadastral Survey	290, 297
Cairns	36
Castes	73—81
Castor	125—126
Cattle breeding	132
Cattle, Breeds of	131
Cement Industry	144—147
Central Excises	313—314
Certified School	340
Chakalas (Dhobis)	75
CHALUKYAS—	2, 3
—of Badami	36—38
—of Kalyana	42—43
Chandrala Parameshwari temple.	468
Chandralamba temple	470—471
Chandrampalli Project	100
Chandrashekhara Education Society.	389
Chandulal Raja	54—57
Channabasaveshwara temple.	466
Channakeshava temples	61
Channakeshavaswami	469
Charitable Endowments	435—437
Chavadies	217
Chenai, Shapoorji Edulji	148
Chhaya Bhagawati	460
Chhaya Devi	36
Chillies	121—122
Chincholi	460
Chincholi Town Municipality.	366
Chittapur Town Municipality	368—360
Cholas	10, 41, 42
Cholera	407
Christianity	72
Civil Judge	281, 332
Civil Supplies Department	342—343

	Page
Climate	28, 29—30, 95
Cloudiness	29
Commercial Taxes Department.	311—312, 346—347
Community Development	130—131, 261—267
Compost	130
Co-operative Banks	166, 176—177, 255
Co-operative credit structure.	178
Co-opreative Institutions, Development of.	174—176
Co-operative planning	179—182
Copper	22
Cotton	122—123, 129
Crime detection	321
Crime incidence	317—318
Cromlechs	35—36
CROPS—	93
—Area under	105, 253—254
—Food crops	106—122
—Non-food crops	122—123
—Pests and diseases	109—111, 114—115, 121, 128
Cultivable wastes	91, 94—95
Cultivated area	91, 94, 253—254
Cultivation modes	106
Cultural heritage	396—397
Cultural Influence Hindu and Muslim.	59
Cultural institutions	395—396
Culverts and Causeways	207
Currency and Coinage	183—185
Curzon, Lord	174

D

Dacoity cases	319
DAK BUNGALOWS, TOURIST HOMES, ETC.—	
—Gulbarga P.W.D. Division	228—229
—Yadgir P.W.D. Division	230—231
Dalhousie	55
Dance, Drama and Music	393—394, 397
Dantidurga	38
Dantivarman	39
Darjis (Simpis)	75—76
Darul-uloom	372
Dattatraya Paduka	460
Daud Khan	47, 462

	Page
Davidson	292
D'Bussy	54
Deaf Boys and Girls, School for	395
Deaths, Accidental	320
Deaths, Natural	406
Deccan traps	20
Deccanis	48, 49, 50
Denotified Tribes, Welfare of	431, 432, 434, 435
Deputy Commissioner	278—279, 300—310, 332, 343—344, 346, 436
Devangas (Koshtis)	76
Devapur	460
Devara Dasimayya	218, 397
Devaraya-II	45
Dhangars	76
Dharmadaya fund	437
Dharwars	18
Dhors	76
Dhruva	39, 41
Diggi	460
Diseases, Common	405
DISPENSARIES—	
—Ayurvedic	413—414, 421
—Combined	416
-Reduced-scale Local Fund.	418
—Unani	414, 420—421
District Agricultural Officer	337
District Board	352
District Development Council	264, 369
District Employment Officer	342,
District Headquarters Hospital	414, 419
District Health Officer	409, 416—418
District Judge	281, 330—332
District-level Officers	281—282
District Magistrate	232
District Officer, Animal Husbandry and Veterinary Services.	338
District Probation Officer	340
District Publicity Officer	349
District Roads, Major	211—212, 221, 223
District Roads, Other	212—213, 221, 223
District Surgeon	412, 419—421

	Page
District Survey Officer	350
Divisional Commissioner	283
Divisional Forest Officer	334
Divorce	84, 85
Diwani Villages (Khalsa)	7, 288, 297
Dogi Bara	136
Domestic and Personal Services.	239
Dowry	83
Dress	87
Dupleix	53
Dwaitha	71
Dwellings—Rural	86
— Urban	86—87

E

EDUCATION—	
Administration	375—376
Basic	381—382
Brahmanic	371
Commercial	386
Fine Arts	393—394
Higher	386—393
Levels	374—375
Muhammadan	371
—of the handicapped	394—395
Primary	376—379
Professional and Technical	389—393
Secondary	382—385
Social	395
Election procedure changes	443
Elliot, Sir	80
Employees Provident Fund Scheme.	427—429
Employees State Insurance Scheme.	429
Employment Exchange	260—261, 342
Engineering College, Gulbarga	391—392
Engineering, General (Industries).	151
Entertainments	89
Epidemics	406
Excise Department	312
Executive Engineers	335, 336
Exports	186

F

Factories and other establishments.	425
Factories Inspector	342, 425
Fair Price Shops	200
Fairs	89, 200, 202—203
Family Planning	414, 454
Famine and Scarcity	136
Farmers' Forum	130
Fathullah Imad-ul-Mulk	49
Fauna	27—28
Forishta	45
Ferries	214—215
Fertilisers	128
Festivals	88—89, 436—437
Finance	255
Fine Arts	397
Firuz Shah	47—48, 462
Fisheries	134—136
Floods	136—137
Flora	24—27
Fodder	132—133
Food-habits	88
Food Production	105
Food Supplies Department	343—344
Foote, Bruce	17
Footware Training Centre	158
Forest Department	334—335
Forests	25—27, 91, 102—104
Freedom Struggle	57—58
French influence	53, 54
Fruits	126, 127, 129
Fuller's earth	23, 163
Funeral rites	90
Furniture	86—87
Furniture Industry	152

G

Game Laws	28
Gandhi Bhavan	363
Gandhi Tatwa Prachar Kendra.	453—454
Gangu	461
General Elections—1957	444, 445, 446, 447
—1962	444, 446, 447, 448
Geologist	345
Geology	17—24, 92
Ghangapur	460
Ghatika	467
Ghiyas-ud-din	47, 462
Gogi	460—461
Gold	21—22
Gopalaswami temple	470
Gorakhnath	74
Goulis	77

	Page
Government Arts and Science College, Gulbarga.	387—388
Government B.Ed. College	392
Government Basic Training Institute.	385—386
Government Branch Press	149—150
Government Employees' Census.	238
Government Polytechnic, Gulbarga.	389—390
Govinda II	39
Govinda III	39, 41
Govinda IV	40
Green Gram (Moongdhal)	119
Groundnut	124—125
Guinea-worm disease	411
Gulbarga City	1, 62, 461—465
GULBARGA CITY MUNICIPALITY	354—357
—Development plans	357
—Improvement of roads	356
—Water Supply Scheme	354—355
Gulchand, Raja	1, 62, 462
Gurmatkal Town Municipality.	365—366
Gypsum	23

H

Habitual offenders	321
Hadapada Appanna	80
Hagaratgi	465
Halgamba (Kalli plant)	82,83
Hali Sicca	183, 184, 185
Handicrafts Emporium	158
Handloom Weaving	154, 156
Hankin, Mr.	325
Hardikar, N. S.	456
Harijan Sevak Sangha	452—453
Harivamsa	60
Hasan (Son of Firuz Shah)	48
Hasan Gangu	5, 45, 461, 462
Hastamalakacharya	459
Hattikuni	465
Hattikuni Project	100
Hayyal Buzurg	465
Health organisation	409—410
Health Units/Centres	410—411, 417—418
Hills	14
Hinduism	70—72

	Page
Hissa Survey	290
Holman Shaft	22
Home Industries	159
Horsegram (Kulthi)	119—120
Horticultural Department	344
Horticulture	126—127
Hotels and lodging houses	218
House-breaking and theft	319
Households	65—66
Housing	267
Hoysalas	2, 43, 44
Hukka (Harihara I)	45, 46
Human resources	252
Humayun	48—49
Humidity	29, 33
Hyderabad Jail Manual	326, 328, 329, 330
Hyderabad Karnatak Education Society.	389, 390, 391, 392, 450—451

I

Idigas	77
Ijara tenure	289, 306
Imports and Exports	186
Inams	287, 289
Income-tax	312—313
Indankal Tank Project	101
Indebtedness, Rural	167—171
Indian Medical Association.	415
Indian Red Cross Society	455—456
Indra III	40, 41
Industrial Co-operatives	157
Industrial Development areas.	160
Industrial Development, State aid to	182
Industrial Disputes	424—425
Industrial Estates	160—161
Industrial Potentialities	161—163, 6 0
Industries Department	347—348
Industries, Old-time	138—141
Infanticide	319
Influenza	408
Infra-trappeans	19—20
Inheritance	81—82
Intelligence work	321—322
Inter-trappeans	20—21
rrigation	97—101
sla m	72
Ismail Adil Khan	51

	Page
J	
Jagannatha Pandita	471
Jagattunga	40
Jagirs	6, 9, 10, 82, 207, 287, 289—290 296, 300—301, 316
Jahangir	51
Jaimini Bharata	218, 397, 460
Jainism	60, 72
Jalal-ud-din Firuz Shah	5, 44
Jalsas	86
Jami Mosque	61, 462, 463
Jayasimha	37
Jayathirtha Yati	307, 467, 472
Jesus Christ	72, 73
Jevargi	465
Jinasena	60
Joint Family System	82
Jowar	106—111
Junior Engineers	336
Junior Technical School	393
Justice, Administration of	330—333
Juvenile Court	340
Juvenile prisoners	328
K	
Kagna Project	101
Kagna river	16—17
Kakatiyas	2, 5, 44
Kakkera	465
Kalachuris (Kalachuryas, Haihayas).	2, 43—44
Kalburgah	1
Kalburgi	1
Kalgi	465
Kalichand, Raja	397
Kalidasa II	468
Kalidasa Dandanatha	468
Kahmullah	50
Kampili Raja	44
Kannada Sahitya Sangha	395—396
Kanyadana	83
Kapaya Nayak	46
Kapus (Reddis)	77
Karkka	38
Karkka II	41
Karnatak Unification Movement.	*58—59*
Kartikaswami temple	468
Kavirajamarga	39—40, 60, 397
Kembhavi	465
Key Village Scheme	132
Khandala	466
Khiraj	285
Khottiga	41
Khwaja Jahan	49
Kirtivarman	37
Kirtivarman II	38
Kistavaens	35—36
Kists	296
Kodekal	466
Komatis (Vaishyas)	77
Koorgy	285, 286
Korhalli	466
Korwar	466
Krishna I	38
Krishna II	40, 467
Krishna III	41, 397
Krishna river	2, 14
Krishnadevaraya	45, 51
Kumara Rama	44
Kumbhars	77—78
Kurumas	78
L	
Labour Department	341—342, 423, 426
Labour laws	342, 422
Labour welfare	163—164, 422—429
Ladle Mushaik	459
Lagwad system	169
Lakshminarayana Rao, N.	37
Lakshmisha	218, 397, 460
Lamani Sevak Sangha	451—452
Lamani Vidyarthi and Vidyarthini Vasati Gruhas.	452
Lambadas (Lambanis or Banjaras).	78
Land Alienation Regulation.	170
Land ceilings	3
Land-holdings	96, 254
Land Records and Settlement.	350
Land Reforms	299—309
Land Revenue Assessment, History of	284—294
Land Revenue collections.	296, 315
Land utilisation	94

	Page
Languages	66—67
Laoni system (Satta)	169, 187
Laterite	21
Learned professions	238—239
Leather footwear	153
Leather tanning	153
Legendary history	36
Lentil (Masur)	120
Leprosy	411
Life Insurance	182
Limestone	23—24, 162
Lingayats (Veerashaivas)	71, 78
Linseed	125
Lions Club	456
Literacy	373—374, 398—399
Livelihood categories	234—239
Livelihood pattern	232—234, 254—255
Livestock Diseases	134
—Population	131, 479—480
Living standards	257—260
Loans for Irrigation Wells.	171
Local Bodies, Evolution of	351—354
Local Funds	352
Location	1
Lockups	322
Lok Karya Kshetras	451—455
Lok Sabha	438, 444, 445, 446, 447

M

	Page
Machinery supply	159
Madan-Hippargi	466
Madhava Rao N.	30
Madhvacharya	71, 397, 467
Madigas	78—79
Madrasahs	371
Magistrates, Executive	332
Mahabat Khan	52
Mahadevan, C.	17
Mahajanas	284
Mahars	79
Mahatma Gandhi	453
Mahatma Hostel	451
Mahaveera	60
Mahboob Ali Khan, Mir	56
Mahboob Gulshan Garden.	464
Mahboob Shahi Kulburga Mills (M S.K. Mills).	147—149, 164, 413, 427
Mahboobia Sicca	183, 184
Mahila Mandal, Afzalpur	458
Mahipala	40
Mahmud I	46—47
Mahmud II	47, 62
Mahmud Gawan	48, 49, 50, 51
Mahmud Khilji	49
Mahmud Shah III	49, 50
Mailaralinga temple	472
Major District Roads	211—212, 221, 223
Maktabs	371
Malaria Eradication	408—409
Malas	79
Malik Hasan Nizam-ul-mulk.	49
Malik Kafur	44
Malkhed	2, 40, 397, 466—467
Mandlik Shaft	22
Mangalas	80
Mangalesha	37
Mangs	79—80
Manu	284
Manyakheta (Malkhed)	2, 40 397, 466
Marasimha II	42
Marathas	53, 80
Marathi Sahitya Mandal	396
Marketing Societies	175
Marriage and Morals	82—88
Marriage ceremonies	83—83
Masnal	467
Maternity and Children's Hospital.	419
Maulana Azad Memorial Hostel.	391, 451
Mechanical Workshop Training Centre.	158
Medical College	392—393
Medical facilities, Evolution of	400—403
Medical Institutions	416—421
—Under District Health Officer.	416—418
—Under District Surgeon	419—421
Medical Organisation	412—413
Medical Practitioners	414—415
Milk Supply Scheme	134
Minerals	162—163, 256
Mineral wealth	21—24
Mines and Geology Department.	345
Mitakshara	42, 82

	Page
Model Carpentry and Smithy Centre.	158
Monappaiah Dargah	471
Monetary conversion	482
Money-lenders	167—171
Monogamy	85
Motor Vehicles	215
Mubariz Khan	53
Mudduranga Guru Prancsha Vitthala.	471
Mudhol Project	101
Mughals	51—52
Muhammad Adil Shah	52
Muhammad-bin-Tughlaq	44, 45, 461
Muhammad, Prophet	72
Mujahid	47, 462
Mullamari Project	101
Mullamari river	16
Munja	42
Munsiff-Magistrates	281, 332
Muslim Endowments	437
Muslim Orphanage	457
Muzaffar Jung	53, 54
Mysore State Khadi and Village Industries Board.	153

N

Nagai	467—468
Nagareshwara Balavikas Mandir.	57
Nalwar	468
Namadeva	75
Name, Origin of	1
Nanjunda	44
Narasimha II (Chalukya)	40
Narasimha (Ganga)	41
Narasimba Saraswati Datta Maharaj.	460
Narasimha Varman I (Pallava).	37
Narona	468
Nasir Jung	53,54
Nasir-ud-din	45
Nasir-ud-din, Khwaja	464
Nasir-ud-dowla	54,401
Natural Divisions	13—14
Natural Resources	252
Natyakalopasaka Sangha.	394
Nazarana	300
Nazim-e-wakf	435—436
Newberry, Captain	55
Newspapers and Periodicals.	440
Nicholson, Sir Frederick.	168
Nijarudrapada	60
Nikitin	49
Nilakanta Sastri, K. A.	51, 139
Nizam Ali	54, 289, 472
Nizam Shah	49
Nizams	6,9, 53—58
Nizam-ud-din Auliya	59
Nizam-ul-mulk	53
Nomadic Tribes, Welfare of	434
Nrupatunga (Amoghavarsha I).	39—40, 307
Nurses' Training	413
Nutan Vidyalaya Education Society.	373
Nyayasudha	217, 472

O

Occupational classification	234—236, 477—478
Oil Mills	149
Oilseeds	124—126, 120
Ornaments	87—88
Osman Ali Khan, Mir	56
Osmania Sicca	183, 184
Osmania University	373, 387
'Other' Backward Classes, Welfare of	432, 434
Other' District Roads	212—213, 221, 223

P

Padaswali	469
Paddy	111—115
Paigahs	207, 289, 297
Pallavas	237
Pampa	397
Panchaladeva, Ganga	42
Panchalinga temple	469
Panchals	80
Panchayatraj	369—370
Panchayatraj Training Centre.	370, 454
Pan-masta	288
Paradesis	48—49, 50
Parantaka (Chola)	40—41

	Page
Parliamentary Constituencies.	438, 440
Pattadari	288, 300, 301
Peninsular gneissic complex.	18
Peshwas	53
Peter	72
Pile-Carpet Training Centre	158
Plague	408
Planning	255—256
Pocha Reddi	46
Police Action	9, 56—57
POLICE ADMINISTRATION	316—317
—Intelligence Branch	321—322
—Railway	325
—Reserve wing	324
—Special Branch	324
—Stations	323—324
—Strength	324
—Welfare	324—325
Police Department	280—281, 323—824
Police Superintendent	323
Political Parties	444—446
Polling Stations	448
Polygamy	85
Ponna	397
POPULATION—	2, 63—65, 475—476
—Agricultural	233
—by mother-tongue	66—67
—by religion	68
—Growth and variation	64
—Non-agricultural	233
—Rural	63, 64, 235, 253
—Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes.	69—70, 429
—Urban	63, 64, 65, 236, 253
Post and Telegraph facilities.	218—219
Pot-Pattadari	288
Poultry	133, 480
Power looms	155
POWER SUPPLY—	141—143, 256
—hydel	142—143
—thermal	141—142
Prashnottara Rathna-malika.	40, 60
Pre-history	35
Price control	247—248
PRICE MOVEMENTS—	240—250, 268—273
During 1890—1913	241—243
During 1914—1929	243—244
During 1929—1939	244—246
During 1939—1944	246—247
From 1945 onwards	248—250
Primary Schools	267
PRISON, GULBARGA CENTRAL	325—330
—Diet	327
—Discipline	328
—Dress	326
—Health	327
—Industries	327
—Interview regulations	328
—Juvenile Prisoners	328
—Training	326
—Welfare	326
—Women convicts	329
Prohibition-propaganda	429
Property and Inheritance	81—82
Prosecutions	321
Public Administration Service	237—238
Public Works Department	335—337
Publicity and Information Department.	349
Pulikeshin I	2, 37
Pulikeshin II	37
Pulses research	130
Pumpsets (Irrigation)	98
Purana formations	18—19
Pushpadanta	397, 467

Q

Quartz	22, 162
Quit India Movement	58

R

Raghava Chaitanya Maharaj Paratpara Guru	459
Ragi	117
Railways	216—217, 257
Rainfall	28—29, 31—32, 95
Raiyatwari system	287, 288, 299, 301, 302, 304, 306
Rajpramukh	9, 57
Rajputs	80—81
Rakkasa-Tangadgi	45, 51
Ramachandra Pillay	58
Ramalingeshwaraswamy Temple.	466
Ramananda Thirtha, Swami	58

	PAGE
Ramaraya, Allya	45
Rampyari Bai Lahoti Balavikas Mandir.	458
Ranaraga	37
Range Forest Officers	334
Ranna	397
Rashtrakutas	2, 3, 38—42
Raya-Murarai	44
Razakars	50, 57, 316
Record of Rights	208—209
Regional Transport Authority.	340
Registration Department	312, 345—346
Regulated Markets	186—196
Religions	68, 70—73
Remand Home	340
Reptiles	28
Reserve Police, Armed	324
Rest Houses, Dak Bungalows and Tourist Homes.	228—231
Revenue Circles	11—13
Revenue Department	309—310
Riots and disturbances	319
Rivers	14—17
Road communications	256—257
Roads, Categories of	208—209
Roads, Surface-wise break-up of	208—209
Road Transport	215—216
Roads, Unbridged	207
Rotary Club	455
Routes, Old-time	206—207
Rudrawadi	469

S

Sabhapathy Iyah	147, 148
Sagar	469
Sagara (Shahapur)	36
Sahukars	165, 169
Salabat Jung	54
Salar Jung	54, 55, 56, 57, 58, 183, 287, 289, 351, 372.
Sandstones	22
Sangam	469
Sangama	45
Sangama Deva	44
Sannathi	470—471
Sanskrit Pathashala	457
Sarf-e-khas	6, 10, 280, 290, 301
Sarmast Saheb Dargah	469
Satavahanas	36
Saw Mills	152
Sayyid Brothers	53

	PAGE
Sayyid Dilawar	53
SCHEDULED CASTES AND SCHEDULED TRIBES	68—70, 429—433
—Agricultural and Industrial Aid	431, 433
—Central Schemes	432
—Educational Aid	430—431, 433
—Health and Housing	431, 433
Seasons, Agricultural	96
Security cases	320—321
Seeds, Improved	128
Seram	469
Seram Town Municipality	367—368
Sesamum	125
Seth Shankarlal Lahoti Law College	390—391
Settlement, Original	290—294
Settlement, Revision	294—296
Settlements, Recent	298
Shah Bazar Masjid	462
Shah Jahan	51, 52
Shahabad	469
Shahabad Cement Works	144—147, 163, 164
Shahabad Town Municipality	358—360
Shahabuddin's Dargah	467
Shahapur	36
Shahapur Town Municipality	361—362
Shaivism	60—61
Shalivahana	77
Shams-ud-din Daud	47
Shams-ul-Umra, Nawab	56
Shankar College	389
Shankaracharya	71, 459, 471
Shantipurana	397
Sharanabasaveshwara	62, 218, 437, 450, 460
Sharanabasaveshwara College of Arts and Science.	388
Sharanabasaveshwara College of Commerce.	392
Sharanabasaveshwara Temple	463
Sharanabasaveshwara Vidya Vardhaka Sangha.	388, 392, 450
Sheep-rearing	133
Sher Shah	285
Sherwani, H. K.	46
Shikmidari	288, 306
Shivaji	52, 459
Shops and Establishments	239, 423, 424
Shorapur	6, 7, 470
Shorapur Town Municipality	362—364
Sikandar	52

	PAGE
Sikandar Jah	54
Silo pits	132—133
Singeya Nayaka	44
Singhana	44
Sirajuddin Junaidi, Sheik	62
Siyaka	41
Small-pox	407—408
Small-scale Industries	150, 157, 159
Smuggling, Prevention of	322
Soapstone	24, 162
Social evils	86
Social legislations	339--340
Social Welfare Department	339—341
Socio-economic Conditions	251
Soil classification	290 - 293
Soil conservation	95
Soils	21, 91—93
Someshwara Pandita	60
Someshwara IV	44
Sonthi	470—471
Sovideva (Raya-Murari, Bhujabala Malla or Someshwara)	44
Spirit worship	71—72
Stamps Department	312
State Bank of Hyderabad	166, 172—173, 184
State Highways	209—211, 221, 223
State Rescue Home	340
States' Reorganisation	10, 59
Statistics Department	339
Strikes and lock-outs	425—426
Sub-divisions	8, 11
Sufism	59—60
Sugarcane	120—121
Sunstroke	320
Surapura	6, 55, 56, 470
Survey System	297—298

T

Taccavi	169—170, 171
Tahsildars	280, 310, 332, 344
Tahud (Sarbasta)	288—289
Taila II	41, 42
Tailapa III	44
Taluk Boards	352
Taluk Development Boards	264, 369 370
Taluks	7, 8, 9, 10, 11
Tanks	97—98, 99
Tarafs	46
Taylor, Meadows	35, 55, 470

	PAGE
Teachers' Training Institutions.	385—386
Telagas	81
Telephone facilities	219—220
Telis (Ganigas)	81
Temperature	29, 33
TENANCY REGULATIONS	302—309
—After integration	308—309
—Earlier measures	303—306
—Later measures	306—308
—Tenures	287—289, 301—302
Tera (Teravu)	83
Textile Industry	147—149
Thintini	471
Thirthankaras	72
Tikacharya	217, 218, 397, 467, 472
Timur	285
Tippu Sultan	54
Tobacco	123
Todar Mal	285
Tombs, Royal	62, 462
Towns	11
Trade	255
Trade Centres	200
Trade in early days	185—186
Trade Unions	426
Traffic Control	322
Transport Department	349—350
Travel facilities	217—218
Tuberculosis	411—412
Tughalchin	47
Tur	117—118
Tyre Retreading	152

U

Udaya	449
Udike	84
Umar-al-Makhzumi-a'd-Damamini.	48
Unani	400
Unani Dispensaries	414, 420—421
Uppars	81
Upper Krishna Project	100
Urbanisation	252—253
Uruses	204—205

V

Vachanas	44
Vaishnavism	61

	Page
Vaishyas	77
Vakatakas	37
Vallabhbhai Patel, Sardar	58
Vanitha Vikas Mandal	457—458
Veeramma Gangasiri College for Women.	389
Veerashaiva faith	43—44, 71, 78
Vegetables	126, 127
Vehicles and Conveyances	214, 215
Venkatappa Naik	6, 55, 56
Veterinary facilities	134, 266—267, 338
Vijaya Mahadevi (Vijjika)	43
Vijayaditya	37
Vijayaditya of Vengi	40
Vijnaneshwara	42
Vikramaditya I	37
Vikramaditya II	37—38
Vikramaditya VI	42—43 60, 61
Vikramaditya, Tribhuvana Malla.	459
Village-level Worker	264
Village Panchayats	369
Village Roads	213—214, 222, 224
Villages	11
Vinoba Bhave, Acharya	310
Vishnuvardhana	39, 40
Vishwambhara Dikshit Samadhi.	471
Vital Statistics	403—405

W

	Page
Waddars	81
Wadi	471
WAGES	251, 424
—Agricultural	276—277
—Urban	274—275
Wagingera	471
Wakf Committee	437
Warehouses	106—109
Weather Phenomena	30, 34
Weights and Measures	187, 200—201
Weights and Measures, Metric	481, 483—484
Wells, Irrigational	97, 98—99
Wheat	116—117
Winds	29—30, 34
Women convicts	326
Womens' Welfare Centres	431, 435

Y

Yadavas (Sevunas)	2, 4, 5, 43, 44, 472
Yadgir	471—472
Yadgir Town Municipality	364—368
Yellamma Temple	465
Yergol	472
Yusuf Adil Khan	49, 50, 51

Z

Zafar Khan	45
Zilla Bundi	7, 287

ERRATA

Page No.	*Line No.*	*Incorrect*	*Correct*
22	5	working	workings
22	9	" Mandik Shaft "	" Mandlik Shaft "
26	34	Cymbologon	Cymbopogon
27	10	Scratta	Serrata
59	25	Mullims	Muslims
81	41	faher-in-law's	father-in-law's
86	2nd marginal heading	dwelllngs	dwellings
88	33	chips	chops
110	4	grasshoper	grasshopper
119	15	or	on
120	3	narrowed	harrowed
136	29	tpye	type
138	Foot-note (line 1)	or	of
141	31	Frst	First
141	41	is	in
181	25	Soceities	Societies
207	29	Kodaganchi	Kadaganchi
222	Sl. No. 1 of Table	Nagar	Nagai
245	1	dimunition	diminution
258	13	" jowar rice "2	" jowar over rice "2
259	11	form	from
274	sub-heading under " Carpenters "	oridnary	ordinary
286	20	cutivation	cultivation
326	6	district	distinct
327	15	phenyle	phenyl
332	37	reveal	reveals
330	13	and and	and
343	4	and	any
348	21	Industiral	Industrial
396	36	a	an
402	17	Rockfellor	Rockefeller
405	3	1961	1963
462	43	influance	influence
463	Last but one line	of	to
468	13	Agrhara	Agrahara
471	Last line	guage	gauge

WD P-3350—GPB—1,000—29-9-1966